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# **PUBLIC EDUCATION.**

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PLANS

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FOR THE GOVERNMENT

AND

LIBERAL INSTRUCTION

OF

BOYS,

IN LARGE NUMBERS;

AS PRACTISED AT HAZELWOOD SCHOOL.

SECOND EDITION.

L O N D O N :

PRINTED FOR C. KNIGHT, PALL MALL EAST.

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APR. 27, 1928

*Will. Arthur*

## P R E F A C E

### TO THE SECOND EDITION.

---

THE first edition of this Work was not only anonymous, but no clue was given by which the reader could discover its authors. We thought it right to offer our plans to public observation, rather in the manner of a scientific inquiry, than in a form which would have rendered us justly obnoxious to the charge of having attempted to excite an undue notice to the affairs of our own establishment. But even as a measure of policy, we have no reason to regret our determination; for many, who, under other circumstances, would have turned with just suspicion from our Work, have, we know, been led to give a deep attention to our principles and methods of government and instruction.

The call for a second edition we have ventured to consider a proof that the system is thought worthy



of attention on its own merits; but it is evident that our principles, if true, and if well reduced to practice, must be followed by results with which the careful inquirer would wish to be made acquainted.

“Argument,” says Lord Bacon, “is like an arrow from a cross-bow, which has equal force, though shot by a child. Testimony is like an arrow from a long-bow, the force of it depends on the strength of the hand that draws it.” In the present edition, we have furnished the reader with many facts in proof and illustration of our principles: we ought, therefore, at the same time, to give him the means of ascertaining what credit is due to our statements; and we take this opportunity of saying, that we are at all times happy to submit every department of the school, and such of our proceedings as may be in operation at the moment, to the inspection and scrutiny of intelligent visitors.\*

If, however, the reasons which induced us to withhold the name of our establishment still existed, it would be affectation to attempt any concealment after the notice of our Work and its authors, in the

\* The vacations are five weeks at Christmas, commencing about the middle of December; and six weeks at Midsummer, beginning in the middle of June.

Revue Encyclopédique, the Oriental Herald, and the Edinburgh Review, which latter journal took the name of the school for the title of its article.

We have been so fortunate as to meet with very little of that critical asperity of which authors stand so much in dread; it requires, therefore, but a slight effort of candour on our parts, to admit that our reviewers have furnished us with many very valuable hints, of which we have availed ourselves in this edition. In some instances, however, though feeling the objections raised against us in all their force, we have not found the means of improving on our first efforts. For instance, the able critic of the Edinburgh Review has, in common with some others, taken exception to the "fine names" which are borne by some of our officers—as judge, magistrate, sheriff, &c. We can assure the writer that we feel how open we lay our plans to ridicule by retaining these appellations, which are by no means given with the absurd intention of raising their little appointments to a false degree of importance in the eyes of the boys; but simply from the difficulty of finding other names equally short and expressive. If those who object to these designations would attempt to amend them,

we should be very glad; for either they would be convinced that our nomenclature, however imperfect, is not easily improved, or they would furnish us with amendments which we should gratefully adopt.

More than one critic has hurt the dignity of our legislators and judges, by calling their proceedings "masquerades," "pageants," and "mock trials." No doubt, it is difficult for grown men to enter into the "delinquency of coming too late into school, pocketing a stray pencil, or breaking an associate's bat," and the king of Brobdingnag found it impossible to reflect, without a smile, on the little loves and hatreds of such animalcules as Gulliver; nevertheless, these little beings, though "no larger than *splac-nucks*," did manage, it was confessed, to throw as much feeling into quarrels about "their titles and distinctions of honour," as if their souls had inhabited the bulk of his Brobdingnagian Majesty himself. And not only ourselves, but strangers who have occasionally witnessed our proceedings, can testify, that the questions which come under the consideration of our little courts, are discussed with as deep an interest as the parties are ever likely to feel in the most serious affairs of after-life.

We wish to guard against an error into which the readers of the Edinburgh Review may have fallen, with respect to the rank which Latin and Greek hold in our system. The reviewer who has done us the honour of so close an investigation of our plans, we are certain, could not have intended to convey the impression, that we thought the classics a subject of slight importance. Yet, when he asks if it would “really do any good to leave out our grammars and dictionaries, and teach boys of thirteen to go through the foppery of land-surveying or astronomical observation,” the reader, who afterwards finds that these latter are favourite exercises among us, may perhaps imagine, that they occupy time which ought to be given to the acquisition of the learned languages. We have not so profound a reverence for grammars and dictionaries as is commonly entertained, it is true; but that is because we do not think them the best means for attaining the end in view, and not from any hostility to the end itself.

If our opinions on this head had been at variance with those of the reviewer, we could not have remained insensible to the following powerful argument.—“So long as a certain knowledge of these tongues is generally considered as the badge of a

liberal education, we apprehend that it is entitled to a preference. The error, if it be an error, is not in those who originally planned or now persist in that mode of education, but in the body of intelligent society, which requires from all well-bred persons a knowledge which no other education can supply. In this sense, no knowledge is so truly useful and indispensable as that of Greek and Latin; since, without it, a man can scarcely take his place in the ranks of polite and intelligent society, or, at least, must be continually exposed to mortifications of the most awkward description.”—EDIN. REV. vol. xli. p.320.

We have to apologize for the inconsistencies which a scrutinizing eye may discover in the present edition. In the three years which have elapsed since our first publication, our opinions have been modified by farther experience; but we have thought it better to let several passages, which we should not write at the present time, remain in their original form, to show what change our minds have undergone. We have generally supplied the reader with dates, so that he will be able to distinguish what opinions we retain, and what we now reject; and, as our reasons on both sides are given, he will be able to judge for himself, whether we have ad-

vanced or retrograded in our knowledge of the subject. The third, fourth, fifth, seventh, and eighth chapters remain unaltered, or nearly so; the first and second have been rewritten; the sixth has been enlarged, and the ninth and tenth are added. The first chapter ("Outline of the System") was complained of as being too meagre;—this defect we have remedied. The second ("System in Detail") would, of course, require much more alteration than those chapters which treat of principles: it is in this chapter, also, that we have principally inserted the anecdotes of which we have already spoken. Those parts of the mechanism which have stood the test of long trial, we thought it would be advisable to describe with a greater degree of minuteness than we had done in the first edition; and we have interspersed the whole with such observations on the various plans as we had omitted in the third chapter, viz. the "Review of the System." If any of our readers should take the trouble of comparing both editions, we believe they will find that, with one or two unimportant exceptions, which are noticed as they occur, all we have done has been to extend the principles on which we originally set out, and not to change them. Of the modes in which

those principles have been carried into practice, we cannot say quite so much. But when the magnitude of the task which we had imposed on ourselves, and the little assistance on this head furnished to us by the works of others, are borne in mind, the reader, we hope, will not attribute our changes to caprice, but to an improved acquaintance with the subject.

This record of the result of our experiments will, we trust, be the means of sparing other teachers much useless toil. How often have we wished for some means of knowing the effect of experiments tried by others, and how often have we regretted the state of insulation in which the members of our profession pursue their labours! This evil, we hope, will not long remain without a remedy. We have reason to believe that a society is about to be established for collecting into a focus all the scattered improvements in education, which have been made in this and other countries. We are sure our brethren will cheerfully aid its exertions and rejoice in its progress.

HAZELWOOD, NEAR BIRMINGHAM,  
JUNE 14th, 1825.

# P R E F A C E

## TO THE FIRST EDITION.

---

THE little Work which we now send into the reader's hands cannot boast of much regularity, either in its design or execution. In fact, it is published with a very different intention to that in which the greater part of it was written; for our original object was merely to defend our system against the prejudices which naturally, and we had almost said properly, attend innovation.

We found it too great a tax upon our time to answer objections *vivâ voce*, and thought that, by arranging our arguments on paper, we should obtain our purpose more easily, and completely to the satisfaction of all parties. Fortunately for us, this reason for writing very soon ceased to exist. We then ceased to act on the defensive: we extended our range, proceeded to detail our plans more fully, and



to enter more at large into the *rationale* of our system ; which itself, as might naturally be expected, was more boldly developed in practice. Having satisfied our minds that our general theory was correct, by a long course of experiments, and by the acquiescence of those who are so much interested in a careful and even rigorous examination of our plans, we have latterly proceeded without the trepidation which at first attended us at every step, and rendered the task of reducing the convictions of our minds to practice a tedious and painful operation.

We now feel our system to be sufficiently matured for public inspection. Not that it is incapable of infinite improvement : we are far from pretending to a state of perfection ; that we should belie daily, by the changes which we still find it expedient to introduce. But there is a wide difference between alterations which proceed from the adoption of new principles, and those which are in furtherance of old ones : the latter will become gradually more and more minute, until they cease altogether to affect any of the important features. We never expect, and indeed never wish, the time to arrive, when changes shall cease to be made ; for to learn the art of improving the methods by which the business of

a schoolboy is transacted, is an excellent means for him to acquire the power of bettering plans in after-life. We have been astonished to find the ease with which, by practice, boys conform to new modes, without the loss of time and the confusion which may be supposed to attend any changes affecting a large number. It is almost needless to observe, that much good must result from leading boys thus to compare one method with another, or, in other words, to reason for themselves upon the *science* of education—a subject to which the reader will find us often endeavouring to call the attention of our pupils.

The slightest examination of the following pages will show that we have not attempted to lay down a general system of education. Our attention has, both from necessity and inclination, been confined to the instruction and government of *boys at school*. With the education of females, or of boys before the time at which they come under our care, we had obviously nothing to do; yet, as the principles on which we have acted are drawn from a consideration of human nature generally, many of them (if they are true) may undoubtedly be applied without distinction of either age or sex. We have not thought

it necessary to dwell on, or in many cases even to advert to, those branches of instruction on which we had nothing new to offer. We have no ambition to repeat "what oft was said and often *better* expressed." Indeed, there was little temptation for us to trench upon the province of others; for numerous and excellent as are the writers on education, they have seldom been practical men, possessing the advantage of trying experiments in the science; and have consequently left us a field sufficiently large. We do not see why the principles of the inductive philosophy should not be as rigidly followed in education, as in any other department of human knowledge. As it respects ourselves, we must honestly confess that we retain hardly a single opinion relating to any part of our profession, which we held in early life; one by one, we have surrendered them all to the force of experience.

Miss Edgeworth, in her *Life of her Father*,\* very properly considers the value of his services in the cause of education greatly enhanced by their consisting very much of experiments accurately recorded. We hope the path which Mr. Edgeworth struck out will be more frequently trodden than it

\* Vol. ii. p. 187.

has been. In one respect, we have enjoyed greater advantages than he for making observations. We have had a larger number of pupils, all differing in their natural and acquired powers, free from that family resemblance which must have run through the subjects of his investigations; and therefore likely to furnish more correct *average* results than can be reasonably expected in his case.

The reader will naturally wish to know, before he undertakes the task of reading the following chapters, what is the object which we had before us in the road that we have chalked out. We shall be able to satisfy his curiosity in a few sentences; and, first, let us say what our object is *not*. It is not to change the course of nature, by transmuting boys into *little men*;—it is not to enable our pupils to hide the meagreness of their stock, by the dexterity with which they may display their wares;—not to lead a boy to imagine that his education is finished, because he is arrived at a certain age;—not for him to suppose, that to talk fluently can be any excuse for not thinking deeply; or that manners may be a succedaneum for conduct. On the other hand, what we do aim at effecting may be expressed in a few words. We endeavour to teach our pupils the arts

of *self-government* and *self-education*. So far from supposing education to cease at school or at college, we look forward to the moment when our pupils become their own masters, as that in which the most important branch commences. If they leave us with a discriminating judgment, the power of doing and forbearing whatever religion and reason shall tell them ought to be done or forborne, and such an extensive and familiar acquaintance with elementary learning as shall render the business of acquisition pleasant, we consider our duty performed; and we look forward to their future character with much of hope mingled with our anxiety.

It has appeared to us, that, to ensure the continuance of such conduct in the young man as the judicious teacher would induce in the boy, it is necessary to bring motives to bear upon him, which will not cease to act when he escapes from the trammels of a school. This great end, it is evident, can only be accomplished by forming an alliance with his mind. Let that be taken at an early age into partnership in the "art and mystery" of education, and, before the time for entering the scenes of actual life shall arrive, it will be qualified to assume the entire direction of its possessor.

We have always endeavoured to recollect, that the ability for self-direction often exists, without the power of self-obedience.

“ ————Video meliora proboque  
Deteriora sequor—————”

is the bitter confession of many a man, whose judgment has outstripped his capability of enforcing her dictates.

“ Who reasons wisely, is not therefore wise ;  
His *art* in reasoning, not in acting, lies.”

To us it is an object of deep anxiety to keep the habits in unison with the wishes. Few of the ills of life produce more pain than that state of discord which exists too constantly, we fear, between men's opinions and their actions. We mainly attribute this defect to the want of early practice in the inestimable science of self-direction.

Where much coercion is employed with young persons, they have no chance of acquiring this art. So far are their minds from governing their actions, that the former are in a continual state of rebellion against the motives which influence the latter. It ought not, then, to be a subject of wonder, that when those extraneous motives cease to operate, and the

actions are left to the control of a power which they have never learnt the habit of obeying, anarchy should be the natural and inevitable consequence.

In conclusion, we wish to offer our testimony on one important fact. In proportion as we have found the means of always treating our pupils as reasonable beings, without endangering the subordination necessary in all government, in exactly the same ratio we have increased our own pleasure in the exercise of our profession.

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# PUBLIC EDUCATION.

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## CHAP. I.

### OUTLINE OF THE SYSTEM.

It would hardly be reasonable to expect that all our readers will feel sufficiently interested in the minute regulations of a school, to go completely through the long enumeration of them which we have thought requisite for giving that exact information, so necessary to those who have any intention of reducing a system to practice. For the general reader, such an outline may suffice as will enable him to understand the chapters which follow the **DETAIL**.

The two great departments of education are, government and instruction. We shall first speak of the government of our school. The principle on which we have acted has been to leave as much as possible all power in the hands of the boys them-

selves. To this end we permit them to elect a committee from their own body, in which the laws of the school are proposed, discussed, and enacted. The teachers having the regulation only of the routine of exercises, and the hours appointed for their performance; and these powers are not exercised individually, but by acts of the whole body, meeting in conference.

Our judicial establishment consists of a Jury-Court, over which a Judge presides. Slight offences are disposed of by a Magistrate, who is at the head of a small but vigorous police. The executive department consists of various officers, who, with the judge and magistrate, are appointed from time to time by the Committee. These officers are treasurers of various funds raised in the school; one for charitable purposes, another for the purchase of books and instruments, and a third for the purchase and repair of gymnastic apparatus. Each of these little institutions has its President, Secretary, and Committee. We have also conservators of the school property, who have the care of the books, drawings, and instruments, belonging to the general body. We have many officers for the preservation of order. Each dormitory has its *prefect*, and during school hours, and at meals, *silentiaries* are employed.

In the choice of our rewards and punishments, we have aimed at making them as slight as is consistent with their being effective. Under the conviction that all such artificial excitements are objectionable,

inasmuch as they interfere with the great principle of self-government, and are therefore only to be justified by necessity.

Our rewards consist of a few prizes, given at the end of each half-year, to those whose exertions have obtained for them the highest rank in the school; and of certain marks, which are gained by superiority in the classes, by fulfilling the duties of the various offices, and by the performance of *voluntary labour* during the pupil's leisure hours. These marks are of two kinds: the most valuable, called *personal marks*, can only be obtained by successful exertions of a high order; these will purchase holiday. The others, called *transferable marks*, may be obtained by performances less perfect. These have their value, in being the general medium for the discharge of penalties. The transferable marks consist of counters of various denominations, while the personal marks exist only in record. Our punishments are fine, and sometimes, though very rarely, short imprisonment. Impositions, public disgrace, and corporal pain, have been for many years discarded.

To obtain rank is an object of great ambition among the boys; with us it is entirely dependent on their conduct and acquirements; and our arrangements according to excellence are so frequent, that no one can maintain a respectable station, without constant exertion, and watchfulness.

The employments of the pupils in the acquisition of knowledge may be arranged under two general

heads. Those which are merely instrumental to an ulterior object, as writing copies and parsing ; and those which are not only useful as a means, but valuable as an end ; such as taking reports of lectures—in which, while the pupil is exercised in penmanship, orthography, and composition, he is laying up a store of knowledge valuable in itself. To these divisions of employment, a third must in most schools be added, comprehending such acts as are necessary to order and discipline ; as calling a roll, recording the names of absentees, &c. Considered as exercises, these latter duties, as usually performed, contribute but little, if at all, to forward the pupil's education. Our aim has been to diminish the first head, increase the second, and annihilate the third ; this last object has been effected, by taking care that all the acts here contemplated shall be performed with so much precision, and shall employ so many of the pupils as to become useful occupations, and thereby to range fairly under one of the former heads. Almost all our movements are made to military step, and several of them to the sound of music. Thus the boys learn to march with precision, and become attentive to the word of command, while many of them learn to play very respectably on various instruments.

The whole business of our government, complex as it necessarily is, must of course be replete with occupation of this kind ; so that even those who, differing from us, may think our regulations are unnecessarily numerous and minute, considered merely

as laws, will perhaps be of opinion that as furnishing the means of useful exercise, they are capable of justification.

We consider it important that instruction should, as much as possible, be social : we have, therefore, divided the school into classes ; by which the teacher may be enabled to afford time for copious explanation. The principle upon which a class is formed is, that it should contain no student who is not on a par, or nearly so, with his fellows ; consequently a different division has been made for each branch of study ; since a boy as a linguist may hold a very different rank to what he may justly claim as a mathematician.

Economy of time is a matter of importance with us : we look upon all restraint as an evil, and, to young persons, a very serious evil ; we are, therefore, constantly in search of means for ensuring the effective employment of every minute which is spent in the school-room, that the boys may have ample time for exercise in the open air. The middle state between work and play is extremely unfavourable to the formation of good habits ; we have succeeded, by great attention to order and regularity, in reducing it almost to nothing.

In early youth the power of applying to one task for any great length of time, or of remaining with comfort in one position, is very limited ; we, therefore, change the place and occupation of our pupils much more frequently than is generally done : but,

at the same time, as it is important to them to acquire the habit of continued application, we have so arranged our exercises that the upper classes remain stationary for a much longer period than their juniors.

We are careful to lose no opportunity of providing motives and means for self-instruction; thoroughly convinced that the great maxim of education ought to be—"It is better to learn than to be taught." One motive for voluntary employment has been already pointed out. No fair occasion is overlooked for exemplifying and insisting upon the advantages of possessing knowledge; and we are careful that no obstacle shall be thrown in the way of any boy who is anxious to avail himself of his opportunities for private study. The library of the school is of some extent, and is constantly increasing: partly from the fund already adverted to, and partly from the presents which are made, from time to time, by the friends of the system. We have literally hidden the walls of several of our largest rooms with maps, plans, and prints of various descriptions. We are collecting busts, we are adding largely to our philosophical apparatus; and we hope our modellers and handicraftsmen will be soon able to construct models of buildings and machines, ancient and modern.

We have a printing press, which we find a great auxiliary, as it furnishes a pleasant and useful employment for many boys. If any one is peculiarly deficient in his knowledge of orthography or punc-

tuation, he may soon be induced to cure himself by a course of printing. A little magazine is written and printed in the school, which is now and then embellished by etchings executed among the pupils.

The improvement of the bodily powers is not forgotten. Gymnastics form a regular branch of the school exercises. Our play-grounds are extensive, and supplied with gymnastic apparatus, and we have a swimming bath.

From the foregoing sketch the reader, we hope, will perceive that we have taken some pains to render the life of a schoolboy as happy in progress as it generally is in recollection; and if our evidence can be admitted, we shall have no hesitation in saying, that our endeavours to this effect have been rewarded with a degree of success beyond our most sanguine expectations.



## CHAP. II.

## SYSTEM IN DETAIL.

---

*Government of the School.*

THE school contains nearly one hundred and twenty boys : its government is lodged in the hands of the principal, the resident teachers, and a committee of boys elected by their companions.

There are ten resident teachers, including the principal ; they hold a meeting, called the *Conference*, once in each week, for the purpose of regulating such part of the school affairs as falls under their jurisdiction ; which is rather that of teaching, than of governing the boys. Here the observations which have occurred to each teacher in the course of the week, on the advantages or defects of different plans, are laid before the body : improvements are suggested and canvassed, and the great principles of education, as the course of debate brings them under view, are developed and thoroughly discussed. In addition to the advantages which we draw from thus, at stated times, examining the affairs of the establishment, the younger members regard this meeting as furnishing them with a va-

luable opportunity for learning the science of their profession. Their daily practice in the business of instruction affords them the means of accurately observing facts, while the inferences which they are assisted in drawing by the remarks of their elder colleagues, enable them to correct their opinions, and arrange their ideas in a systematic form.

The Committee of boys is chosen on the first Monday in each month, at a general meeting of the school, over which one of the pupils is called upon to preside as chairman. The boy who is then highest in rank, the means of obtaining which are hereafter described, is entitled to appoint a member of the Committee; the two next in elevation jointly nominate a second; the three next choose a third, and so on to the bottom of the list; the lowest section, if incomplete, being incorporated with the division above. The lowest division votes first, the lowest but one, second, and so on. Thus the boys of least capacity are called upon to choose their representative before the choice has been rendered difficult by the appointment as committee-men of those who are best known to be fit for the situation. If in any section the votes do not show an absolute majority for any individual, the division remains unrepresented for the ensuing month. All boys in the school, except such as may have been convicted of certain offences within the current half year, are qualified for seats in the Committee. The Committee at present consists of fourteen boys; but its

number must evidently vary with any considerable increase or diminution in the school. The Committee meets once a week in the school-room, and any boy has a right to be present as an auditor. Until lately, every assistant teacher had a seat *ex-officio* in the school committee; but in practice only one has attended, and that one, though he has generally taken a part in the discussion, has not given a vote for more than three years. As the power of all the teachers to attend the Committee, and to vote on its proceedings, was therefore clearly not required for the welfare of the school, it was thought proper, a short time ago, formally to restrict it by an act of the Conference, which act also expressed a wish that the restriction should become part of the school constitution. At the next general meeting of the scholars, a resolution of the Conference was read, restricting the number of teachers' seats to one, and an additional one for every ten members of the Committee. The meeting accepted the resignation; so that the power can never be resumed by the teachers without the consent of the boys themselves. Thus two teachers have at present a right to seats on the Committee; but one only is in the habit of attending, as heretofore. This individual is appointed by the Conference.

The boundary line of jurisdiction between the Conference and the School Committee, runs thus:—The Conference directs the amount and species of labour to be performed by the different classes, and

the time of study ; also as a consequent jurisdiction, it regulates all the manœuvres requisite to the due performance of the school exercises. It usually regulates the amount and species of rewards given for superiority in the classes, and for voluntary labour.

All regulations which regard either punishment or privilege belong to the Committee, which must therefore be applied to for the enforcement of the ordinances made by the Conference : this latter body having no power to enforce its decrees by any penal sanction. With respect to privileges, the Committee directs what qualifications shall entitle a boy to take the various degrees of rank in the school, as *Autarch*, *Frank*, and *Ward*, terms which will be explained hereafter. The Committee has the appointment of all the school officers. It has also the management of two funds, one of these, the Benevolent fund, is raised by voluntary contributions from the teachers and pupils, and is applied to charitable purposes : here the power of the Committee is limited to donations of a certain amount ; the sanction of a general meeting of the subscribers, which is frequently called, being necessary to greater disbursements. This fund enables the boys to subscribe to some of the public charities in the neighbourhood. The other revenue is called the *School fund*, it amounts now to upwards of £100 per annum, and is partly furnished by the proprietors of the school and partly by the parents of the boys. It is expended for the most part in the purchase of philosophical instru-

ments, musical instruments, apparatus for printing, maps, school-coin, and books for the school library, the pupils being invited to recommend the purchase of books or other articles by entries in a register kept for the purpose. To those who have not witnessed the prudence and uprightness with which very young persons can be taught to use power, it may appear a dangerous arrangement to intrust boys with the disposal of such a fund; but we have never had the slightest reason to regret the experiment. At the end of each session (the interval from vacation to vacation) the Committee prepares a statement of the expenditure, which is printed at the school press, and each pupil takes home a copy for the perusal of his friends. Thus a powerful check is furnished, if any were required, to improper expenditure.

The advantages derived to the boys from the management of this fund are very considerable. To discuss the various merits and defects of books and instruments, to ascertain where and how they can be best procured, to transact the business attendant on their purchase, and to keep the necessary accounts, must all be useful exercises. Neither can it be doubted that these preliminaries to the possession of a desired object very much tend to heighten its value, and increase the wish for its preservation. Thus habits of care are induced, which are of the highest importance. Our school-rooms are all hung with valuable prints and maps.

The musical instruments are constantly accessible to all the boys. The library contains many costly books ; and property of a great variety of kinds is constantly exposed to the use of our pupils, with almost perfect safety. A clock has been in use in the principal school-room at least ten years, and has never received the slightest injury. It is even more gratifying to state that the disposition to avoid doing injury is not merely a selfish feeling. We have abundant evidence that our neighbours, even those whose grounds adjoin our own, have never suffered any serious inconvenience from their proximity to the school, and the few accidental injuries that have arisen have been cheerfully redressed.

A very important duty of the Committee is to hear cases of appeal from the decisions of the inferior authorities. Of these appeals we shall speak more fully hereafter. The Committee has also many lesser duties, which it would be tedious to enumerate.

The division of powers between the teachers and the pupils was agreed upon in February 1817, and was reduced to writing. It has since received some modifications ; as for instance, the restriction in the number of teachers entitled to seats in the Committee—which have been formally consented to by all parties ; some other alterations have gradually grown out of the practice of the school. In every instance where a change has taken place, it has been to effect a transfer of power from the teach-

ers to the pupils; and this has always been done at the instance of the teachers themselves; a fact which, as we conceive, clearly shows the absence among us of all jealousy respecting prerogative.

When the Committee has resolved upon any law, a copy is presented by the secretary to the principal, whose sanction is necessary before it can be put in force.\* The law is afterwards read aloud in the presence of the school, when its operation immediately commences, and a copy is hung in a conspicuous part of the school-room, for at least three days.

The veto of the principal can be exercised only with respect to the general laws of the school; it does not apply to the appointment of officers, the decision of appeals, or to the disposal of the funds. We have hitherto made no attempts at *codification*; a task which must, however, be performed at no very distant period; as the number of our enactments is rapidly increasing, and we are in danger of soon arriving at that dreaded state of things when the study of the law shall become a science. At present, although we are of course obliged to act on the maxim *Ignorantia juris non excusat*, yet we have no reason to believe that any serious inconvenience

\* The first Committee was appointed on the 3d of February, 1817; and although from that time to the present, (April 1825), the Committees have been constantly employed in repealing, revising, and correcting the old laws, and in forming new ones, the principal's assent has never, in a single instance, been withheld, or even delayed.

is felt by the boys for want of legal knowledge. It is, however, part of the system to give law lessons to the younger boys. Tables of penalties are also placarded in different parts of the premises.

The regulations of the Committee require, that, previously to the discussion of any new law, a week's notice shall be given. This necessary arrangement having sometimes occasioned inconvenient delay, a sub-committee, consisting of the judge and magistrate for the time being, has been empowered to make regulations, liable as usual to the veto of the principal; which, unless annulled in the mean time by the general Committee, continue in operation for a fortnight. A great advantage of this arrangement is, that it affords opportunity of trying as an experiment the effect of any regulation, and modifying it, if necessary, before it forms a part of the code of written laws.

Immediately after its election, the new Committee assembles, and proceeds to appoint the officers for the ensuing month. A Chairman, Secretary, and Sub-secretary, are first chosen; then the Judge, the Magistrate, the Sheriff, the Keeper of the Records, the Prosecutor-general, and the Defender-general are elected. At the same time, also, the Judge nominates the clerk and the crier of the court, and the Magistrate his two constables.

Of the duties of the Judge we shall speak hereafter. The Magistrate has the power of enforcing all penalties below a certain amount. When an



offence is committed which is beyond his jurisdiction, he directs the Prosecutor-general to draw an indictment against the offending party, who takes his trial in a manner which we shall presently describe. The Magistrate also decides petty cases of dispute between the boys; and is expected, with the assistance of his constables, to detect all offences committed in the school. At the end of the month the boy who has officiated as Magistrate is rewarded with a half holiday; and, in order to secure to him the good-will and active co-operation of the other boys, he has the privilege of choosing a certain number of them to enjoy the holiday with him. This number is estimated by the Conference, according to the success of the police in preserving order. The Magistrate has also the power to reward the constables with half a day's holiday at the same time, and to permit each of them to confer the same favour on either one or two other boys, according as he shall think his constables have performed their duty.

The Magistrate is not expected to levy fines for neglect or the careless performance of the school exercises. This duty devolves upon the teachers, who have also to collect some other fines. All penalties, however, whether levied by the teachers, or not, are under the control of the Committee.

The Sheriff has to enforce all penalties levied by the jury-court.

The Keeper of the Records has the care of the

indictments and other papers belonging to the jury-court.

The Prosecutor-General is the officer who conducts the proceedings against boys tried by order of the Magistrate. In cases of appeal, it is the duty of the Prosecutor-General to draw up the necessary documents, if required by the appellant; for this he receives a fee of a certain number of marks from the unsuccessful party.

The Defender-General is expected, for a certain fee, to conduct the defence of any boy who may desire his assistance. His appointment, however, does not preclude a boy from defending himself, or from engaging any other schoolfellow as counsel, in preference to the Defender-General.

The Jury-Court generally assembles on Wednesday afternoon, when there is business which requires its attention. The causes which come before the Court are either prosecutions for penal offences, or actions which boys who have disputes, sometimes bring against each other. At this time every teacher and every pupil is expected to be in attendance.

In the morning of the same day, in penal cases, a private court is held, consisting of the magistrate, the prosecutor-general, the clerk of the court, the accused party and his counsel. The indictment is read, and the defendant is required to state whether or not he intends to plead guilty on his trial. This is done with the view of informing the defendant of the exact offence with which he is charged, and also

for the purpose of saving the time of the prosecutor-general, who might otherwise make needless preparations for the prosecution.

In order to encourage an acknowledgment of the fault, a small deduction is made from the legal penalty when the defendant pleads guilty. The consequence is, that at least five out of six of those who are justly accused acknowledge the offence in the first instance.

When the court is assembled in the afternoon, the defendant, if the case is penal, is placed at the bar between the two constables. If he has signified his intention to plead guilty, no jury is summoned; but the clerk of the court again reads the indictment, and states that the defendant has pleaded guilty: he then inquires if the defendant has any thing to say in mitigation of punishment; and after opportunity has been allowed, the judge passes sentence, and the case is ended.

When the defendant is determined to stand his trial, or when a civil cause is at issue, a jury is appointed. All boys are competent to serve on the jury, except those who may have been convicted by the court since the commencement of the session, the lower third of the school, and such as for the time are engaged as officers of the court.

The Jury consists of six, who are chosen by lot from among the whole body of qualified boys. The lots are drawn in open court, the first by the judge, and the remaining five by the first juryman drawn.

That member of the jury who ranks highest in the school, is the foreman.

Each of the contending parties has a peremptory challenge of three jurors, and a right of challenge for cause, *ad infinitum*. The judge decides upon the validity of objections.

The officers of the court and the jury having taken their seats, the defendant (when the case is penal) is placed at the bar. The defendant is asked if he object to any juror, when he may make a challenge, as before stated. The question is then put to the prosecutor-general, who may exercise the same right; and the process is repeated until both parties acquiesce in the appointment.

It generally happens that several challenges are made, and the cause assigned is usually incompetency, arising either from extreme youth, or from a late admission into the school. It has appeared to us, from close attention to the nature of these challenges, that both parties have almost uniformly had the same object in view, namely, to obtain a jury fully competent by integrity and intelligence to the determination of the question at issue. An instance occurred a few months ago, which forcibly illustrates what we have said. Sept. 29th, 1824—A boy of fifteen was tried on two indictments. Previously to his first trial he challenged many of the jurors. He was convicted. When asked, previously to the second trial, if he objected to any of the jury, he answered in the negative; so satisfied did he appear

to be of the justice of the first decision. He was again convicted.

The challenges being disposed of, the clerk of the court reads the indictment.

It sometimes happens that a defendant will at this time plead guilty of the charge preferred against him, notwithstanding his having in the morning stated his intention to stand his trial. When this happens, the proceedings are of course at an end ; but in passing sentence, the judge does not make the usual deduction from the penalty appointed by the law. If the defendant be still determined to stand his trial, the prosecutor-general opens the case, and the investigation proceeds. Our rules of evidence would be considered very lax by those who are accustomed to the strictness of the *Superior Courts*. We admit testimony from all parties, and of any kind (hearsay or otherwise), which is considered to bear at all upon the case under investigation ; trusting to the observations of the advocates on either side, and to the strictures of the judge for its due estimation by the jury.

The judge takes notes of the evidence, to assist him in delivering his charge ; in determining the sentence he is guided by the regulations enacted by the committee ; which affix fines of transferable marks, varying with the magnitude of the offence, but invest the judge with the power of increasing or diminishing the penalty, to the extent of one-fourth. The judge has also the power, under certain circum-

stances, of ordering a boy into solitary confinement for a limited period, or of forbidding him for a certain number of days to hold any communication with the other boys of the school.

The penalties appointed by the judge are entered in a book by the sheriff; and a copy of the sentence is laid before the Principal for his signature, when he may exercise his power of mitigation or pardon.

The fines are paid into open court immediately after the ratification of the sentence; otherwise, the defendant is obliged to work in his leisure hours till he has raised a sufficient fund.

Any one who has committed an offence may escape the shame of a public trial, by undergoing the greatest possible punishment that he could suffer from the sentence of the judge.

The proceedings of our Court of Justice occasionally furnish interesting matter for our little Monthly Magazine. We shall here extract reports of one or two trials, as these reports will serve to illustrate what has been said respecting our mode of administering justice; they will also, we hope, be considered as evidence that the boys engage in such employments with a full conviction of their importance; (for, to our little community, such proceedings are as important as those of the great Courts of Justice to the nation at large.) They will further prove that the investigation is carried on with care and impartiality; that it is not a mere farce of boys

acting as puppets under the guidance of their teachers, as some have thought who never witnessed our proceedings ; and they will show, that the boys are not merely allowed to proceed without interference just so long as they act in accordance with the wishes and opinions of their superiors in age, but that the whole business is conducted *bona fide* by the boys themselves, acting on their own responsibility, with perfect independence, though at the same time with steadiness, and with an ardent desire to do justice to all parties ; arising, no doubt, from the conviction that their own interests and those of their companions must be materially affected by their determinations.

It frequently happens that the jury will withdraw, and remain for a considerable time in deliberation ; when, in imitation of superior Courts, our regulations require that the jury should keep fast till it is unanimously agreed. The following is a case in point, and it may be well to state, that the oldest juror on this occasion was only thirteen.

“ HAZELWOOD ASSIZES, Nov. 14th, 1822.

“ \* \* \* \* was indicted for a very serious offence ;† to this indictment he pleaded Not Guilty.

“ After all the evidence had been brought forward, and the defendant had made his defence, the Jury began to deliberate. This was at a quarter past twelve. Soon after, the Jury expressed a wish to retire, which was allowed, and they continued in deliberation. At half-past seven in the evening, more evidence was called for ; this was given ; but it was not till a quarter past eight that the Jury could agree to a unanimous decision. At this hour they returned a verdict of GUILTY.

† A theft.

"The Jury during this time suffered considerably, both from cold and hunger, having had nothing to eat from breakfast time, at nine o'clock, till after the verdict was given. They now took a light meal.

"It is with considerable pride that we relate the above occurrence. We esteem it as a proof that the love of justice is firmly rooted among us; and we feel grateful to the boys who composed the Jury, for having discharged a painful duty in a manner so truly honourable."

*Hazelwood Magazine, Vol. I. No. 4.*

Shortly after the day of trial, circumstances transpired which put the correctness of the verdict beyond all doubt.

The following report is selected because it contains nothing which can hurt the feelings of any individual:

"HAZELWOOD ASSIZES, AUGUST 7th, 1822.

"The defendant was indicted for an attempt to cheat.

"The Jury being chosen, the Attorney-General\* stated the case as follows:—My Lord†—Gentlemen of the Jury—On Monday, August 5th, 1822, at prayer time, J. H. was monitor to the class in which the defendant stood; he fined the defendant for talking. The defendant took out his marks apparently to pay the fine at the time; but on H. going to fine another boy, the defendant returned his marks to his pocket. H. saw this, but appeared to take no notice at the time, in order to see whether the defendant would pay him; but after prayers he told Mr. A. H. of the circumstance, who after waiting a little while to see if the defendant would come to pay the fine, as he did not appear, sent for him. Mr. A. H. thought the affair required investigation, and sent the defendant to the magistrate, who, after an examination, committed him for trial.

"The Attorney-General then proceeded to examine the evidence.

"J. H. was first called.

\* So the Prosecutor-General was designated at the time.

† The Judge is now addressed Mr. President.



" Were you monitor to the class in which the defendant stood at prayers on Monday night last ?

" Yes.

" Did you fine him for any thing ?

" Yes ; I fined him for talking ; he took out his marks and appeared to be about to pay me ; but as I was fining another boy, he put his marks into his pocket again.

" Did you take any further notice of this affair at the time ?

" No ; but after prayers I went and told Mr. A. H., and asked him if I had not better go for the defendant. Mr. A. H. said he would allow him a little time, to see if he would come of his own accord and pay the fine.

" Did the defendant come to you ?

" Not till Mr. A. H. sent for him, after waiting some time.

" The next witness that was called was Mr. A. H.

" Pray, Sir, did you send the defendant before the Magistrate ?

" Yes.

" What reason had you for sending him before the Magistrate ?

" On the night in question, the last witness came to me after prayers, and related to me the facts to which he has just now spoken.

" Here the case for the prosecution concluded.

" The defendant, when called upon for a defence, cried very much, and it was with some difficulty that he could be heard to speak. He stated that he took out five marks for payment, but that they fell from his hands ; and fearing he should be fined again for stooping to pick them up, he let them remain until after prayers. That after the boys had marched to their places he went to look for his marks. After some time he found them, and was endeavouring to find H. when the messenger came to him from Mr. A. H. The defendant asserted that he had no intention of cheating.

" The Judge. Who was the messenger that came to you ?

" Defendant. I do not recollect.

" Neither of the last witnesses could recollect.

" The Judge addressing the audience. Was any one present employed as messenger ?

" A boy. I think it was F. H.

" F. H. No. I was not the messenger. I do not know who it was.

" The defendant now desired that Mr. H. H. might be called.

“ Defendant. Do you teach many classes of which I am a member ?

“ Witness. Yes.

“ Did you ever know me cheat ?

“ No ; but I once had reason to suspect you.

“ Did you send me to the magistrate at the time ?

“ No. You had then been at the school but two or three days, and I was not quite certain of the fact.

“ Mr. F. was next called.

“ Am I in any of your classes ?

“ Witness. Yes ; in several.

“ Did you ever know me cheat ?

“ No.

“ Mr. F. H. was next called.

“ Defendant. Did you ever know me cheat ?

“ Witness. No ; but I have not many opportunities of observing you ; I do not teach many of your classes.

“ Do you remember my bringing to you fifty marks which I had found, and asking you to inquire who had lost them ?

“ No, I do not remember this ; but it is very possible that you may have done so ; boys often bring me marks which they find.

“ F. O. was then called.

“ Defendant. Are you the Custos Depositorum ?

“ Witness. Yes.

“ Am I on the list of sub-defaulters\* ?

“ No.

“ Am I a Frank ?

“ Yes, you are.

“ The Judge then summed up the evidence.

“ The Jury, after a short consultation, expressed a wish to retire. They presently re-appeared in Court, and returned a verdict of Not GUILTY.

“ The Judge then dismissed the defendant, advising him to be careful in future not to do any thing that would appear in the least degree suspicious.”

*Hazelwood Magazine, Vol. I. Nos. 1 & 2.*

The following is an account of an action brought by a boy ten years of age, against the monitor

\* Now called Wards, and described as such.

(thirteen years old), to recover damages for the loss of certain rewards which are distributed weekly for punctuality of attendance, and which increase from week to week, so long as the punctuality remains perfect. The loss arose from the plaintiff's rising too late one morning, which he attributed to the neglect of the monitor in not calling him.

" HAZELWOOD ASSIZES, APRIL 30th, 1824.

" Alfred B—— *versus* John P——.

" The Jury being empannelled, the Counsel for the Plaintiff stated the case as follows :

" Mr. President—Gentlemen of the Jury—Last Thursday week the plaintiff being unwell, was desired to lie in bed longer than usual;\* and consequently told the defendant, who was monitor, to call him at a quarter of an hour before the general muster, which was to take place at seven o'clock. This the defendant omitted to do, and in consequence the plaintiff broke the regularity of his attendance, which he had kept perfect during three quarters of a year. The reward which the plaintiff would have received last week, if his attendance had been perfect, is one hundred and ten penal marks†."

" One of the audience here rose, and addressing the Judge, observed, that by an inadvertency, there had been no opportunity given for challenging the Jury. The Judge desired the clerk to proceed in the usual form, and one or two challenges were then made.

" The Counsel for the plaintiff, having repeated his statement of the facts, concluded by informing the Court, that the damages were laid at eight hundred penal marks.

" The first witness who was called was the plaintiff.

" Counsel for the plaintiff. Were you desired to lie in bed longer than the other boys last Thursday week ?

" Witness. I was.

" Did you tell the defendant to call you at a quarter before seven ?

\* The usual hour of rising is six.

† So the transferable marks were then called.

" Yes; I told him the day before.

" Did you speak very loud?

" No; not very loud.

" The next witness who was called was Mr. A. H.

" Counsel for the plaintiff. Is it not the business of the monitor to call those who lie in bed later than usual?

" Witness. It has always been usual for him to call them, but I do not know if there be any law which obliges him to do so. I observed, before the plaintiff broke the regularity of his attendance, that one or two boys had come down stairs incompletely dressed, among whom was the plaintiff, and in consequence of this, I spoke to the defendant, and told him that I believed it was his duty to call them.

" Judge. Is it the duty of the monitor to call boys without having had previous notice from those boys?

" Witness. I am not quite certain. But I told the defendant that I thought it was.

" Mr. H. was next called.

" Counsel for the plaintiff. Will you please to tell us what reward the plaintiff would have received last week, if he had not broken the regularity of his attendance?

" Witness. He would have received one hundred and ten penal marks. He has been punctual in his attendance since last Midsummer, and is always very anxious to arrive at Hazelwood the night before the school opens at the commencement of the half-year. I think the damages are very moderate, for the plaintiff is a loser by more than eight hundred marks.

" No other witnesses were called by the plaintiff.

" The Counsel for the defendant then began the defence as follows:

" Mr. President—Gentlemen of the Jury—I believe the plaintiff has given us no proof that he did tell P—— to call him; I will, however, allow that he did tell him, but it was while P—— was beating the drum, and it is impossible that he could have been attending to the clock,\* and to what B—— was saying at the same time. I believe B—— lies in bed very often; and it is very probable that if this monitor had called

\* The monitor at certain times is obliged to beat seconds on the drum, and depends for exactitude upon the second hand of the clock.

him, some other monitor would have omitted to do so in another instance, and thus he was in great danger of breaking the regularity of his attendance.

"The first witness who was called for the defence was the defendant himself.

"Counsel for the defendant. I believe you have a list of the monitor's duties. Please to look at it, and tell us, if it is his duty to call those boys who have permission to lie in bed later than usual.

"Witness. Here is upon the list, 'Rising at six o'clock.'

"Cross-examined by the Counsel for the plaintiff.

"Can you tell us if the monitors have other duties besides those that are on the board you have in your hands?

"I believe they have.

"Counsel for the defendant. Would a monitor be fined for neglect of a duty which is not mentioned on the board?

"Witness. No.

"Mr. A. H. was next called.

"Counsel for the defendant. Is a monitor ever fined for neglect of a duty which is not mentioned on the board?

"Witness. I am not aware of any duty, than the one in question, which is not recorded on the board. I think, however, that in this instance the monitor would have been fined, as he had been reminded of his duty the morning before.

"The Judge then charged the Jury, and gave it as his opinion that the damages were too high.

"The Jury consulted for a few minutes, and then obtained leave to retire to another room, where they continued in deliberation for two hours. A verdict was then returned for the Plaintiff. Damages three hundred and fifty penal marks."

*Hazelwood Magazine, Vol. II. No. 4.*

We have given this as a specimen rather of the *bona fides* than the talent with which our judicial proceedings are conducted; though it must be remembered, that the report, being also the work of a boy, must not be taken to be a perfect account of the case. The points for discussion were three:—

First, Whether a duty could be imposed on a monitor by custom. Secondly, Supposing it could, and the custom contended for proved, whether, in the particular instance, the monitor had due notice ; and, Thirdly, Supposing the two former points made out, what amount of damage had been sustained by the plaintiff. As far as our recollections go, each point was duly investigated, and the requisite proof adduced ; though certainly, judging only from the report, a link or two of the evidence would appear to be wanting. It often happens, also, that the judge and jury *take notice*, as the lawyers call it, of the existence of many facts well known to themselves, which would appear to a stranger to require specific proof.

The offences which come before the Court of Justice are, principally, leaving the school before the appointed exercises are completed and examined, truancy, falsehood, and petty acts of dishonesty. The commission of such offences is confined to a very small class of boys, consisting almost entirely of pupils who have been but a short time in the school. When a case of prevarication comes before the court, the offender is likely to be severely dealt with ; for the juries have hitherto shown a decided aversion to every kind of deception ; and a quibble is, perhaps, punished more rigorously than a direct falsehood.

A register is kept of all who have been convicted before the Court of Justice, and of those who have

paid the increased fines in order to escape trial. Some boys are acutely sensible of the disgrace of appearing in this book; and in order to make this very proper feeling a spur to moral improvement, it has been thought advisable to allow any one, whose name, at the last arrangement according to general conduct, (on a system to be explained hereafter,) shall have stood above a certain number, to move the Committee to order the erasure of his name from the criminal register. The boy, in this case, is obliged to give notice of his intention at a previous meeting, and, to succeed, he must prove to the satisfaction of the Committee, that his conduct for a long time past has been exemplary. This has been done in several instances, and the good feeling manifested by all parties in a successful case, renders it one of the most delightful, and in a moral point of view, one of the most improving occupations of the Committee.

Any one who shall think himself aggrieved by a decision of the magistrate, a teacher, or of the court of justice, may appeal to the Committee. Appeals from the court of justice are very rare indeed. Out of nearly six hundred penal cases which have come before the court, during the last nine years, nine only have given rise to appeals. Six of these have been against verdicts of acquittal, and three against verdicts of conviction. Of the former, five, and of the latter one, have been successful. In almost all of these instances, evidence was brought before the Committee which had not been heard be-

low. We recollect one instance only which can at all authorize a charge of partiality against the Jury. The case was as follows :—In October 1822, a boy, fifteen years of age, who had recently entered the school, thought himself aggrieved by a decision of one of the teachers, and replied to him in a very surly and ill-tempered manner. The teacher, desirous of avoiding any unpleasant altercation, told the boy that he would attend to him at another time, and desired he would “*go away*.” The boy instantly replied, “Very well, I will go away,” took his hat, and left the premises. No attempts were made to detain him, and he walked all the way home, a distance of nearly twenty miles. The boy did not return to school till two or three days afterwards; and he was committed for trial by the magistrate on a charge of truancy. When he appeared before the Court of Justice, he defended himself by stating that, upon being told to go away, he understood the teacher to mean that he should leave the school altogether; he also brought evidence as to character. The jury, after some deliberation, acquitted the defendant. The Prosecutor-General appealed to the Committee; when, after a long discussion, the boy was convicted. There is reason to believe that the acquittal of the defendant by the jury may be attributed to the influence of one boy, much older than the others, who had recently joined the school, and who was an intimate friend and relation of the defendant’s. After the trial, the Prosecutor-General



said, that he had hesitated as to the propriety of challenging this boy ; but had determined in the negative, to avoid the appearance of suspicion. No doubt his own honourable feelings led him to expect integrity from others, even under such peculiar circumstances.

A remarkable instance of conscientious feeling was given some time since by a jury, who convicted a boy on a charge of prevarication ; though they were so much moved by the distress of mind which he evinced during his trial, as to pay half his fine from their own pockets. The remainder was immediately subscribed by the audience.

Appeals against the decisions of the teachers and magistrate have been frequent. The Committees have generally ratified the former decisions ; and when they have not, (with a few exceptions only,) they have acted in conformity with the opinions of the teachers as a body. We can remember only two instances in which that has not been the case ; even here, all that was done was to reduce the penalties, not to remit them altogether ; and though it was the opinion of the teachers that in these instances the Committees were actuated in some measure by party feeling, we cannot be certain that such was the fact, because it is not impossible that the teachers themselves might be influenced by a sentiment of *esprit de corps* in favour of the acts of an individual of their own body.

The following is a case of appeal against a deci-

sion of the magistrate. It is not the most interesting which could have been selected, but we have adopted it because there is nothing in its publication to hurt the feelings of any person engaged in the transaction.

It would be in vain to attempt any concealment of the fact, that our pupils, like all boys in the full tide of health and spirits, do not always see the folly of an appeal to the *ultima ratio regum* in so strong a light as that in which it *sometimes* appears to older eyes; and resort is now and then had to trial by combat, in preference to trial by jury. The candid and experienced teacher, who knows the difficulty and the danger of too rigorously suppressing natural impulses, will not censure us for endeavouring rather to regulate this custom, than to destroy it altogether. In the hope of lessening the number of those *fracas*, (never very large,) a law was proposed, which the Committee adopted, to render it penal for any person, except the Magistrate, to be present at a battle. Six hours' notice must be given by both parties, and a tax paid in advance. During the interval, it is the duty of the Magistrate to attempt a reconciliation. These regulations were intended to give opportunity for the passions to cool, and to check the inclination for display which is often the sole cause of the disturbance. We consider the effect on the minds of the spectators as the worst part of the transaction. There is something dreadfully brutalizing in the shouts of incitement and

triumph which generally accompany a feat of pugilism. Neither boys nor men ought ever to witness pain without sympathy. It is almost needless to say, that, with us, fighting is any thing rather than a source of festivity and amusement.

If a pugilistic contest should take place without due notice having been given, the parties are liable to a heavy fine, and it is the duty of the eldest boy present, under a heavy penalty, to convey immediate information to the Magistrate, that the parties may be separated.

These regulations were made in April 1821. During the first few months, the number of battles did not appear to be materially checked, four contests of the kind having taken place between April and July in the same year; but from July 1821, to the present time, (April 1825,) two battles only have been fought, according to the regulations laid down. It is true that a few other contests have taken place, or rather have commenced, without notice being given; but in every instance early information has been conveyed to the Magistrate, who has immediately separated the belligerents. We have reason to be confident in stating that no contest of this latter kind ever lasted two minutes.

To return to our story.—A day-scholar, whose father's grounds adjoin ours, was discovered by the Magistrate to have witnessed a battle from a tree, which he had climbed for that purpose. The Magistrate fined him. He appealed, and the question of

his liability was argued at some length before the Committee.

The ground which the appellant took was, that no day-scholar could be amenable to the laws of the school, except during the hours of business, or while on the premises belonging to the school, and that the alleged offence was committed out of school-hours, and on his father's land.

Public opinion ran in his favour. The plea that he was on his father's land seemed to have great weight with his schoolfellows. To fine a boy under such circumstances appeared to them like an attempt to invade the paternal sanctuary, and the motion for quashing the conviction of the Magistrate, at first received the support of several members of the Committee.

The attending teacher saw that it would be necessary to call the attention of the Committee to general principles, and proposed, as an amendment to the general motion, the following resolution, "That it is *desirable* that the laws should be obeyed at all times, and in all places." In support of this amendment he argued, that as the laws had the happiness of the school in view, a breach of those laws must certainly be in some degree destructive of the general good. That to allow this in certain individuals would be injurious to the great body, but still more so to the individuals themselves; and that what was wrong in the school-room or on the play-ground at eleven in the morning, could not be right in the

fields at six in the afternoon. In conclusion he said "Whether or not we have the *power* to fine a person for a breach of our laws when he is at a distance from the school, is a question which it is not our present business to determine ; but I firmly believe that our laws are calculated to promote in the highest degree our welfare, and I wish the advantages to be derived from obeying them to be as widely diffused as possible."

The amendment was carried unanimously.

Having determined "that it was desirable that the laws should be obeyed at all times, and in all places," it was necessary, in the next place, to ascertain whether it was not a part of our law that such should be the case. With this view, an amendment was proposed, which declared, that such was the intention of the law, and in support of it cases were cited in which day-boys had been punished for offences committed at a distance from the school. It was also insisted, that in no single instance had the laws made an exception in favour of the day-boys. They universally begin by saying, that, if "any one," or "any pupil," or "any boy," shall commit such and such an offence, &c. and not "any boarder," or "any day-boy then at school."

The second amendment was also carried without opposition.

The question was now confined within very narrow limits. The Committee had declared that it was "desirable that the laws should be obeyed at all

times, and in all places ;” and also, that by law no exception was made in favour of day-scholars ;—it only remained therefore for the Committee to consider, whether the police of the school had the power to enforce the laws. It was argued that in this instance they had been enforced, for that the fine had actually been paid, and that unless the Committee interfered to prevent it, they would continue to operate, as they had done, for the welfare of the school at large, and for the ultimate advantage even of the individuals who might at first appear to be injured.

The amended motion was now put, and the conviction was unanimously confirmed.

This detail will furnish the reader with a more correct conception than we could otherwise have given him, of the opportunities with which the sittings of our little Committees furnish the members for making some important acquirements. In the first place, they study the art of reasoning, and that too under very favourable circumstances ; being fully acquainted with the facts on which they are called to exercise their judgments, and seeing them in all their bearings. We believe an intimate acquaintance with facts to be the first and most important element in practical logic—reasoning, strictly speaking, being no more than the art of tracing analogies and differences. The *reality* of the business in which the students are engaged is very valuable, inasmuch as it furnishes them with strong motives to exert all their powers in the

investigation. The matter at issue "comes home to their business and bosoms;"—it may deeply affect their own interests, and will not pass unnoticed by their constituents; among whom the question will be again discussed, and the committee-men will in conversation have to defend the opinions they have officially expressed. Thus every argument is well canvassed in their minds, and the ideas remain under consideration for a sufficient time to become permanently fixed in their remembrance.

The power of public speaking is also in some degree acquired, and, we hope, without the counter-vailing evils which have been so justly deprecated. The great defect of all artificial methods of learning the art of debating is, that it is seldom of any real importance to either speaker or hearer, on which side the question under discussion is determined; consequently, the speaker is more anxious to display his own talents, than to convince the audience; which, on its part, wishes rather for amusement than instruction, or seeks the latter only by watching the conduct of this mental fencing-match, in order to learn the most skilful manner of handling the foils. Every one who addresses the company assembled, feels that he shall be more applauded for agreeably wandering, than for pointing out and following the best and straightest road. In short, discussion, instead of being a means employed to gain an object, is the end itself. The orator, if such a name is to be so degraded, rises not to gain the votes of his

hearers, but to make them laugh and clap their hands ; and, as this is most easily done by advancing smart sophisms, and uttering well-delivered absurdities with mock solemnity, we may readily conceive how little the powers of investigation can be exercised and improved by such practice as that of spouting clubs and debating societies. No doubt there are many exceptions to these remarks ; but the vice we complain of is, we fear, inherent in some degree in the nature of the institutions ; although by care in the choice of members, and the selection of an audience, it may, in a great measure, be counteracted.

We must not forget to state the advantages obtained by the Teacher's attendance on the sittings of our Committees. He becomes most intimately acquainted with the minds of his pupils. He may be compared to the naturalist who watches the labours of bees in a hive of glass. He sees the difficulties and errors of his pupils in a strong light, and is placed in a situation for addressing himself more completely to the state of their wants than he could be, unless they were thus induced, and almost compelled, to disclose all the workings of the mental machine. In general, nearly every person who knows a boy at all, has an opportunity of becoming better acquainted with him than his instructor. No wonder, considering the many painful sensations which the latter, in his various offices of accuser, witness, judge, and executioner, is compelled to excite. We are happily relieved from



these difficulties, but we still seize with avidity every means by which our pupils may be induced to develop their minds to our view ; feeling that our acquaintance with their springs of thought and action, can never be too accurate and complete. The votes at the conclusion of the debate show us the measure of our success. Every influence, except that of mind, is, we trust, out of the question : we do not always carry a majority with us ; and this fact leads us to hope, that when we do, a sincere effect has been wrought on the convictions of the boys.

To conclude, we must in candour acknowledge, that we search more industriously for arguments and illustrations to support our opinions, than we should or *could* do, under other circumstances. The effect on the mind of the Master is not a bad test of any method of education.

The Court of Justice takes cognizance only of bad acts, but it has appeared to us that bad habits are a fair subject of attack ; and now, whenever a boy is found to have acquired vicious habits of speaking, either with regard to grammar or accent, habits of slovenliness, trifling, talkativeness, &c., he is summoned before the Committee, and, the charge being proved, a weekly tax of marks is imposed upon him, which is levied until he is able to show, to the satisfaction of the Committee, that he is reformed. On the other hand, there is a list of boys who have acquired a character for great personal neatness, and for their care of property. These boys, who are called

*Mundi*, and are appointed by the Committee, are alone intrusted with the more valuable works of the library : they are moreover exempted from the daily inspection as to personal appearance. It sometimes happens that the Committee is called upon to act in cases which have not been provided for by the laws, as will be seen by the following extract from the minutes :

“ NOVEMBER 23, 1824.

“ The Chairman having reported that some boys in the Southern Dormitory had misled the Prefect as to the time for getting up,

“ Resolved—That a fine of 1500 penal marks be levied upon the boys of the Southern Dormitory, and that those on the Committee, who are in that Dormitory, shall pay a double share.

“ Resolved—That E. H—— be requested to collect the fines.”

Till within the last three years we had some difficulty in managing cases of disrespect and disobedience to the Teachers, which would occasionally occur. Before that time, when any boy was accused of disrespectful behaviour to a Teacher, the case was examined by the Sub-Committee, which consists of the Judge and Magistrate for the time being. These two boys determined the fine to be paid; their decision being subject, as all their acts are, to the *veto* of the Principal, and open to an appeal from them to the General Committee. They had also the power of directing that the individual should take his trial before the Court of Justice ; but this was only to be done in extreme cases, and an instance never occurred of the power being used. It sometimes happened

that the penalties enforced by this body were not such as to satisfy the Teachers. We believe the members of the Sub-Committee had every wish to do justice between the parties ; but cases of this description appear to be peculiarly difficult. Whether an individual is respectful or not in his behaviour, depends very much on his looks, the tone of his voice, and other nice distinctions, which demand considerable skill to extract from the witnesses ; and, even supposing the Judges to be acquainted with all the facts, to estimate them correctly requires an experience which boys cannot be expected to possess. It is necessary, in short, that they should conceive themselves exactly in the situation of the individual offended ; and from doing this they are obviously disqualified by the disparity in age.

The Sub-Committee appeared to be aware of these difficulties ; and, at their own request, the power of deciding upon cases of the above description was transferred to the Teachers themselves. This alteration was made by the General Committee on the 10th December, 1821, by the passing of the following Resolutions, which were introduced by the Judge :—

“ On the report of the Sub-Committee, that it was their wish that the duty of punishing disrespectful behaviour to the Teachers, should be placed in other hands,

“ Resolved, That it appears desirable to the General Committee, that this power should, for several reasons, be placed in the hands of the Teachers themselves.

“ Resolved, also, That the law on this subject already in force be repealed, and that the following be substituted :

“ The penalty for this offence shall be from fifty to two hundred penal marks ; and when any boy is charged by a Teacher with disrespectful behaviour towards him, such boy shall, within six hours after the charge shall have been made, request any two Teachers he may choose, to act as arbitrators in the affair, and the power of punishing the offender shall lie with them alone. If such nomination should not be made within the appointed time, the power of selecting the arbitrators shall be with the Teacher against whom the offence is committed. Either party may appeal against the decision of the arbitrators to the Conference of Teachers, giving the same notices as are required in case of an appeal to the Committee.

“ The decision of the Conference shall be final.

“ The arbitrators, or in case of an appeal, the Conference, shall have the power, in an instance of gross disrespect, to commit the offender for trial before the Court of Justice.”

Thus, it will appear, that although the power of punishing offences of this description is left entirely in the hands of the teachers, yet, as the appointment of both arbitrators is given to the accused party, there is little danger of his being punished with improper severity. These regulations have been productive of the best effects. By examining the register of arbitrations we find, that from the commencement of the regulations, to the end of the following year, 1822, (twelve months and a few days,) the number of investigations, followed by punishment of any kind, was 46, of which 4 were referred to the Jury Court. For the year 1823, the number was 40, without any reference to the Jury Court. For the year 1824, the number was 14, with one reference to the Jury Court ; and for the three months already passed of the year 1825, the number has

been only 2,—both settled by the arbitrators. This improvement will be seen to be even greater than it at first appears, when it is known that, during the operation of these regulations, the number of pupils in the school has gradually increased from 70 to 119, and the number of teachers from 6 to 10.

Accusations of this description, like those made before the Court of Justice, are preferred against a very small class of boys. The state of feeling which exists between the boys and their teachers, is generally of the most friendly kind : it is almost impossible that any set of pupils can be more respectful or more dutiful, and this effect, be it remembered, is produced without any degrading punishment whatever.

When any boy above the age of thirteen leaves the school, his character becomes the subject of judicial consideration ; a report thereon is drawn up, and laid before the General Committee by a Sub-Committee appointed for the purpose. In this report, the boy's merits and demerits are impartially stated ; his improvement while at school, his rank and general character, and the offices of trust he may have served, are here recorded. On the other hand, the criminal register is consulted ; and should his name be found therein, the fact is now brought forward against him. Offences committed long ago, however, are not unkindly dwelt upon ; and moral improvement is always recorded with pleasure.

These reports are entered in a book, and read to the whole school. If any boy desire a copy of the

report on his character, he is furnished with one by the Secretary.\*

When a boy who has held a high rank in the school, leaves with an unexceptionable character, his teachers and schoolfellows, at the request of the Committee, enter into a subscription to purchase him a token of their good-will. The Conference presents him with a ticket of perpetual admission to the exhibitions; and, with the joint consent of the Conference and the Committee, his name is inscribed on a tablet of honour, which is hung in one of the school-apartments.

\* See the Appendix for a report of this description, and for other transactions of the Committee.

*Rewards and Punishments.*

We are not friends to artificial excitements of any kind ; and therefore do not place much dependence on rewards and punishments, particularly the latter ; still, though by unremitting attention to the subject, we have been enabled gradually to substitute, for rewards and punishments, motives of a higher rank, from which we have derived many advantages, yet we do not at present see the means of avoiding their employment altogether.

Our rewards, as we have already said, are chiefly conferred by the distribution of certain counters called transferable marks, which the boys obtain by superiority in the classes, by filling certain offices, and by various kinds of voluntary labour performed in the leisure hours. In the forfeiture of these counters our punishments chiefly consist.

Every boy in the school devotes such part of his play-hours as he may think proper to the obtaining of these marks. The product of almost any kind of labour or study is received, provided it is presented in a complete state, and is tolerably well executed. As each boy, for this purpose, is at liberty to employ himself in the way he shall think proper, he of course engages in those pursuits which are most consonant with his taste. Some boys give much time to translation, and to the composition of original essays ;

others prefer drawing and planning ; with some, etching on copper plates is the favourite amusement ; models of machinery, of houses, of animals, &c., are frequently presented for rewards ; and many boys devote their leisure time to reading, who, when they claim to be rewarded, undergo an examination as to their knowledge of the book they have chosen, that it may be ascertained how far they have read with attention.

In conducting this examination, it will at once be seen, that ample opportunity is afforded for fixing, in the mind of the pupil, the facts of which he has been reading. If he shall present a book of voyages or travels, he can be required to point out on a map the places of which he has read ; if a book on science, to exemplify by experiment such parts as are capable of illustration.

The amount of reward is determined by estimating the time which any piece of work might reasonably be expected to employ the pupil, and then paying him according to a fixed rate per hour, decreasing within certain limits as the age of the pupil advances. If the boy is ten years of age, he has 30 marks per hour ; if eleven, 25 ; if twelve or upwards, 20 ; no diminution takes place after twelve, for reasons which will be stated shortly. If the pupil is younger than ten years, he receives an additional ten marks per hour for every year which his age is less than ten. This rule is, however, often slightly relaxed, with a view to reward excellence, and to encourage those kinds of



exertion which are thought to be the most useful. These rewards are distributed at a certain hour of each day.

The nature and variety of occupations carried on for the purpose of obtaining these counters are very amusing. We have a little museum, and sometimes we are able to persuade the pupil to deposit there the productions of his ingenuity. This museum contains models of buildings and machinery of various descriptions; specimens of turning, philosophical apparatus, and a great variety of other articles, all produced by the boys. Many complete electrical machines have been constructed; and a boy of thirteen, succeeded so well in a copper-plate etching, which he had executed for these marks, as to obtain for it the silver medal which is annually offered by the London Society of Arts. A remarkable instance of anxiety to obtain marks was once given by a boy, who, for that purpose, in a very short time translated into tolerably correct blank verse, the whole four books of the Georgics, without any assistance.

Considerable ingenuity is frequently evinced by very little boys.—A day-boy, only eight years of age, was confined by his father during great part of a day to his chamber. The boy was furnished with books, paper, and pencils, but was under no obligation to work. The next day, however, he brought to school work sufficient to entitle him to receive marks for five or six hours' labour. It consisted principally of an original view, which he had taken from his prison

window. It was exceedingly well executed : the *foreground* of the picture, to speak technically, consisted of the interior of the window, with the bars of the sashes, the drapery, and other appurtenances, all correctly marked. Beyond were exhibited the distant houses, trees, and hills, all in good perspective. The father was so delighted with his son's performance, that he fully forgave him his previous misconduct.

Our counters are of various denominations, the size of each being in some measure proportionate to its value. The smallest is the *prime*, worth, as its name implies, one mark ; there is the *decad*, worth 10, the *cent*, 100, and the *chiliad*, 1000 ; the decimal progression being preserved throughout. To increase the facility of exchange, we have also some coins of intermediate value, namely, the *triad*, (valued at 3,) the *pentad* (5,) the *demi-cent* (50,) and the *quingent* (500.)

The collateral advantages derived from this arrangement are considerable. The pupils become practically acquainted with the excellences of the decimal system : and in calculating the total value of a variety of coins for the purposes of receipt, payment, and exchange, they have almost constant practice in mental arithmetic. We have frequently been struck in noticing the ease with which even the youngest boys perform these operations. In explaining the decimal notation to our younger pupils, and decimal fractions to those more advanced, we find our coins of the greatest use. The quingent and chiliad are large medals, the first of brass and the

other of copper, each bearing on the obverse an elevation of Hazelwood house. The possession of one or both of these medals, to which certain slight privileges are attached, is an object of ambition within the reach of every boy in the school. We have also silver medals bearing the same impression. These can only be obtained by the performance of exercises of a superior kind ; the required amount being the produce of one hundred hours' employment. On the reverse of each silver medal the owner's name is engraved, and it can neither be transferred nor exchanged for marks. The acquisition even of a silver medal is a matter of frequent occurrence.

The transferable coins in general use, are of brass or copper ; besides these there is a set struck from the same dies, which, for the sake of distinction, are made of *block-tin*, their use is as follows : —We must not disguise the fact, that sometimes a boy is convicted of petty acts of theft ; we can, however, truly say, that the commission of such disgraceful offences is confined to a very few individuals who are either very young, exceedingly deficient in talent, or who have been admitted recently into the school. Any one who is convicted of theft, is restricted for a certain period to the use of this peculiar coin. The possession of other marks would excite suspicion and enquiry, and as they would not be received in liquidation of fines, temptation to obtain them by fraudulent means is removed. No individual is at present in this state.\*

\* April 12, 1825.

While upon this part of our subject, justice to our pupils requires that we should express our admiration of the high tone of moral feeling which pervades the great body—daily, almost hourly, instances occur, which clearly indicate so desirable a state. We could mention instances where boys who had fraudulently obtained property, have been forced to restore it to the owner by the mere expression of public opinion, before there had been time for the intervention of the school authorities; but we forbear entering into the particulars, from the fear of hurting the feelings of boys who have shewn, by their subsequent conduct, a sense of the impropriety of their former behaviour. It is by no means uncommon for boys to report, that fines which they have incurred and might have escaped, have been omitted in the public accounts. Public enquiries for the owners of money or marks which have been found, are made almost every day; sometimes the amount is considerable. In August last, two little boys, (one nine and the other ten, found 2400 marks in the Gymnasium.—As no one was present at the time, the boys might easily have appropriated them to their own use; and when we consider, that to have earned such a stock of marks, would have required the labour of sixty hours from the younger boy, or eighty from the elder, it will be seen that the temptation was by no means trifling. Immediately upon finding the marks, the little fellows, proud of their integrity, ran and deposited them in the hands of the Magistrate. Public enquiry was

made for the owner, but as no boy claimed them, it is supposed that they must have been dropt by one of the Teachers. Boys have sometimes made enquiries for the owners of marks which have been put into their desks by mistake; and some months ago, a boy ten years old caused enquiry to be made for the owner of a cent which he found in his pocket while dressing. The boy said he knew it could not be his because it was bright, and he had never possessed such a coin. About the same time, this boy found 1500 marks which were restored to the owner.

Our transferable counters form in a great measure the currency of the school. We recollect noticing a few weeks ago, placards, which the boys had printed at their press, exhibited in different parts of the premises, in which the advertiser informed "his friends and the public," that at a certain hour in the evening he should have the pleasure of exhibiting a Magic Lantern in one of the larger class-rooms—"Admission, 15 marks." We learned that the advertiser had such overflowing houses as to be obliged to repeat the exhibition two or three times in the course of the same evening.

The little boys will sometimes engage to perform certain services for their elder companions; such as running on their errands, brushing their coats, arranging their desks, &c. at a fixed weekly salary: the compact, of course, binding the parties no longer than is mutually agreeable.

In the evening it is usual to employ a boy in reading

aloud while the others eat their supper. He frequently takes the newspaper, sometimes interesting stories. He has a very handsome salary raised by subscriptions, and his judgment is exercised in making such selections as will prove interesting to his employers. For a more comprehensive view of our opinions on this part of our subject, we must refer the reader to the chapter on "Voluntary Labour."

Every boy is expected to have a considerable number of these marks at all times in his possession, to meet the fines which he may incur for breaches of the laws, and for neglect or inaccuracy in the performance of the school exercises. These fines are for the same offence, uniform in their amount, whatever may be the age of the pupil; but as the younger boys can obtain their marks more readily than their elder companions, a due regard to age is still preserved. We prefer the present arrangement to making the penalties vary in amount, which was the plan we once pursued; because, as the rewards are distributed by the teachers, and the fines principally collected by the boys, simplicity is less needful with regard to the former, than as respects the latter; the rewards, too, are generally given in large amounts, whereas the fines are almost always collected in small sums.

As with the exception of imprisonment, which can only be resorted to under very peculiar circumstances, and certain disqualifications, our punishments consist entirely in the forfeiture of these marks, it is evident that numerous and powerful motives must be brought

into operation, to induce the boys to labour for the acquisition of them. Such motives we have endeavoured to furnish by the following arrangement, from which it will be seen, that a boy's rank in the school materially depends on the punctuality of his payments.

A boy at entering the school takes the denomination of *ward*, and stands at the zero point, in the scale of rank. A certain time of freedom from tasks, and from fines, is allowed him, in order that by voluntary labour he may entitle himself to a fund of marks, to enable him to pay the fines to which he may afterwards become liable, by the breach of the school regulations. Two hundred of these marks are placed in the hands of an officer called the *Custos Depositorum*, by whom they are held for the use of the owner. The remaining stock is always increased by the donations which it is the established custom for the boys in the school to make to a new comer. This custom is not grounded upon law; each individual gives what he pleases, without any concert or collection; and the pupil adds to the sum from time to time, by the performance of voluntary labour. These advantages being given, the pupil is obliged to pay every fine the moment it is incurred, with the exception of a few penalties which necessarily require delay: if he should be unable to pay his fine from the fund of marks in his own possession, he is obliged to draw a supply from his deposit; he is now consi-

dered as insolvent, and is called a *defaulter* : when in this state, he is obliged to work while the other boys are at play, until the rewards for the labour so performed have enabled him to complete his deposit, and have also furnished him with a certain stock of marks to begin the world again with credit ; this being accomplished, he again becomes a ward. If the new-comer keep his deposit unbroken for three months, he is raised to the grade of *frank* ; but a ward having once become a defaulter, must keep his next deposit unbroken for six months before he arrives at this honour.

The privileges of a frank are first, that, under certain restrictions, he is entitled to take a short credit for the liquidation of the fines, which others must pay when demanded. Secondly, he is admitted to a superior playground, from which defaulters, and such wards as have ever been defaulters, are excluded. Thirdly, the franks have four holidays in the year, on each of which they take some pleasant excursion ; the particular day and the route being determined by the majority. A frank may lose his title, and become a defaulter, by insolvency, and must work up again through the grade of ward ; but in consideration of his having been once a frank, his wardship is limited to three months. Frankship unbroken for the space of a whole year, creates the boy a *veteran frank*. His privileges are exemption from bounds, and from several other restrictions, to which all below him are subjected. A frank having



made certain acquisitions, may be raised to the rank of *autarch*.

The election lies with the conference, the committee, and the previous autarchs, either of which bodies has a veto. An autarch, in addition to the rights of the veteran frank, is privileged from all fines, but he receives no reward. The institution of veteran franks and autarchs is very recent. At the close of the last session, among the hundred and two boys of whom the school was composed, there were sixty-two franks; of these, twenty-five were veterans, and two autarchs. During the last year, the average number of defaulters was about three. The proportion of franks has regularly increased for some years. A boy being convicted before the court of justice, whatever his rank, becomes instantly a ward, and must work his way back to honours in the manner described.

Thus it is always the interest of every boy to have a considerable stock of marks in his possession; and to encourage this by another motive, generally twenty per cent. and, in certain cases, fifty per cent. is deducted from all penalties paid at the moment they are incurred. A further motive is furnished, by giving a reward to all whose names have not, in the course of the week, appeared on the debtors' list. The effect of these regulations is, that nearly all the penalties are paid in the first instance. Prudent boys are careful never to be without some hundreds of these marks; and there are those who

have thousands. Indeed, it is an object of ambition to possess the greatest number.

The excursions of the franks are sources of great enjoyment, and afford the means of conveying to the minds of the pupils much valuable information. The following account of an excursion to Kenilworth is extracted from our little Magazine. We need not point out the light-heartedness with which it is detailed.

“As Kenilworth, the place previously agreed upon to visit, is at a distance of eighteen miles, and as but few of us were able to walk there and back,\* four hackney-coaches were hired. In high spirits, we set out from Hazelwood before the sun had risen, and on our way to Birmingham, enjoyed a most beautiful view of the surrounding objects as they were gradually enlivened by the majestic orb. We could not have fixed upon a finer day; indeed every thing agreed in adding to the pleasure of the excursion; and a clear unclouded sky showed the surrounding country to the best advantage. The coaches conveyed us within five miles of the place of our destination, and we then walked the rest of the way.

“On entering the ruins of this ancient and noble pile, which excited a double interest in such as had read the celebrated novel that bears its name, we separated, and each followed the direction of his fancy.

“We shall not, indeed, attempt to describe what has afforded theme for the first-rate talent. It sufficeth to say, that we climbed the highest pinnacle that prudence warranted, and dived into the lowest recess our curiosity could discover; not a corner remained unexplored. The banqueting hall now rang with our shouts; the huge kitchens, in which whole oxen had once been roasted, now received us beneath their ample chimneys; and the sleeping echoes of the very dungeons, which had once answered the clank of chains, were now called

\* At this time the number of franks was comparatively small.

forth by our joyous mirth. As the eye wandered over the huge pile of building, and viewed the ravages of time, the mind was filled at once with wonder at the labours of our ancestors, and regret at the instability of all human works.

"When our curiosity was pretty nearly satisfied as to examining the different parts of the Castle, one of us having discovered a large crab-tree, we supplied ourselves with its fruit, and commenced hostilities with one another; part manned the ruins, while the rest, remaining below, began to assail the garrison, who quickly answered their attack with showers from above.

"The toils of warfare, however, quickened our appetites; and a gentleman of the name of Turner having kindly sent us some refreshment, seating ourselves upon the grass near the place of our encounter, our provisions quickly vanished.

"At about half-past four we set out on our return. We walked to the place where the coaches stopped in the morning, and stepping into them at about six, they conveyed us back to Birmingham. After passing through the town, the sound of a neighbouring bell announced at once the hour of ten, and the welcome news of our near approach to Hazelwood, where we at length arrived, highly pleased with the day's excursion."

*Hazelwood Magazine, Vol. I.*

The superintendence of the defaulters is taken by certain teachers in rotation. The defaulters work during the customary leisure hours in a room where they are secluded from the other boys. The code of regulations for their management, which is placarded in the room, is given in the Appendix; and from its perusal it will be seen, that the task of superintendence is most arduous, requiring great punctuality, vigilance, and temper. Indeed it is one, upon the careful performance of which, the well-being of the whole school materially depends. An important part of the duty of the superintendent

is to see that the defaulter does not augment his default by neglecting his regular school exercises. He is also expected to assist the boy in overcoming any obstacles to the future employment of his leisure time in voluntary labour. As, for instance, by recovering for him any lost books or pencils ; or, where this is impracticable, by supplying him with others. If a boy, while a defaulter, should refuse to work, the superintendent has the power to confine him in a closet, which is lighted and furnished with a desk. Here he is kept till, by his labour, he shall have gained a certain number of marks. The boy may afterwards appeal to the committee, and recover damages in marks, if, in their opinion, the teacher should have confined him unnecessarily.

The very restricted power of imprisonment which is thus placed at the discretion of the teachers, and that already described as being lodged in the hands of the judge, are the only authority by which a boy can be deprived of his liberty, even for a moment ; and as the first applies only to the defaulters, and the last to the offenders who come before the jury-court, both very small classes, it will at once be seen that the great mass of our pupils are secure from all punishment, except the loss of their marks. Moreover, when it is considered that these marks are almost invariably obtained before the commission of the offence which occasions their forfeiture, and that consequently the pupil in acquiring them must be employed at a time when his mind is free from un-

pleasant association, and again, that he has the choice of his occupation, we think it will be allowed that but few of our pupils are liable to any restrictions deserving the name of punishment.

It appears to us desirable that every school should preserve records of all such transactions as affect its well-being, (whenever they can be made without an undue sacrifice of time,) to enable the conductors to ascertain whether the character of the school is progressive or otherwise. We have a register of this description, which exhibits, in a very small compass, a weekly account of many important particulars ; such as the amount of rewards and fines, the number of hours of imprisonment, the trials and convictions before the Jury Court, &c. &c.

By consulting this register, we find, that the amount of imprisonment has for a long time rapidly diminished. For the last year, the weekly average of imprisonment for each boy, has been one minute and a third only, whereas, when we last wrote (in 1821) the weekly average per boy was nearly 15 minutes. All the boys, except the veteran franks, are required at the commencement of the Saturday afternoon, (which is for the most part a holiday,) to show that they possess 500 marks each, exclusive of their deposits ; in case of failure, a boy is obliged to remain at work till he has performed a sufficient quantity of labour to entitle him to receive 200 marks ; a boy so circumstanced is not considered as a defaulter, at least as regards his qualification for the grade of frank.

The care of the public treasure, if we may so call it, (meaning the counters not in circulation,) is entrusted to a boy who is called the Banker; his accounts, which are kept in the common form, show the number of marks received every day as penalties; and a comparison of the amount of cheques drawn upon the Banker by the teachers, with the total of marks received into the bank for any given time, will show, whether in that period the school at large has become richer or poorer. Many of the offices which bear salaries are periodically disposed of by inverted auction, and conferred upon those who, being duly qualified, are willing to take them for the smallest salaries:—the qualifications for the different offices being defined by the Committee. In cases where the necessary qualifications are numerous, it sometimes happened, that from want of competition, exorbitant salaries were obtained. This, in time, produced a serious evil, by sending a great number of marks into circulation, and thereby depreciating the currency; the consequence was, that the fines, though they retained their nominal amount, were all considerably reduced in value. To counteract this evil, the Committee adopted the following arrangement:—They assessed the salaries at certain amounts, and determined that when the total required exceeded the total of the assessment, (as is uniformly the case,) such excess should be paid from a fund, to be raised by subsidy on all boys who have completed their twelfth year; so that now, whether the offices

are taken at excessive, or at moderate salaries, the draughts from the teachers' fund are the same. The share which each boy pays of this subsidy depends upon his age, an elder boy paying more than a junior; and it is for this reason, that beyond the age of twelve (that at which a boy begins to pay a share of the subsidy) no diminution takes place in the rate of awarding the value of the voluntary labour.

It sometimes happens that the calls upon the pupils for the subsidies are very frequent, amounting occasionally for the elder boys, to the produce of five or six hours' labour per week, and many attempts have been made in the Committee to repeal the regulations altogether.—Hitherto, however, this body has acted on the conviction, that burdensome as they might be to the elder boys, yet, by preventing the evils which would arise from a depreciation of the currency, they were beneficial to the school at large. We feel a pride in stating, that in this instance, as in many others, the Committee has passed enactments directly opposed to the private interests of a majority of its members.

We have been frequently asked if the purchase and sale of marks were permitted; and when we have answered in the affirmative, we have sometimes had to defend the state of the law in this particular. The objection urged against the practice has generally been, that it must give to the monied boy an advantage over his less wealthy schoolfellow; which, while it might excite the jealousy of the latter,

would, in all probability, work a serious injury to the former, by making him careless of observing the laws. Our defence has been, that as long as the marks were transferable, by passing the coin from hand to hand, it would be impossible for any jurisprudence short of an inquisition, to prescribe the terms on which they should go from one to another. When any one reflects for a moment on the number of marks that must be paid and received in the course of a day, he will see that to keep an account for each individual would be a work of endless labour: so that we are driven to employ a coinage; and coins, as the lawyers say, have no *ear-mark*; that is, they have no criterion by which the owner is designated. What then is to prevent a buyer and seller from retiring into a corner, and effecting the sale without fear of detection. But, besides the difficulty of abolishing the power of transfer, there are positive advantages attached to it of no mean importance. A stranger would be surprised at the number of subscriptions and donations of marks which take place among the boys. It would be impossible by any other means, to give such play to the generous feelings. Every boy now, by the exercise of a little industry, can enable himself to enjoy, at any moment, the pleasures of beneficence, which would be very much checked and lowered by the trouble and parade of a transfer of stock from one name to another; supposing it were possible to keep the accounts to which we have just alluded. It has been seen



too, that the invention of the boys is stimulated by the hope of reward, to the discovery of many little plans for interesting and amusing their companions. This is always a harmless, and oftentimes an instructive employment of the faculties; but it is evident that its very existence depends on the facility with which the labours of the candidate for public approbation may be rewarded. Moreover, the supposed inconvenience does not exist in practice. We have never been able to perceive any relation between the amount of a boy's pocket-money and the number of his fines; and our attention has been so much drawn to the subject, that if there were such a coincidence, we could not have overlooked it. Indeed, we are not quite sure that the sale of marks is wrong even in theory. It offers a means by which industrious boys may do something towards redressing the inequalities of fortune, and that in a mode by which they advance their education. On the other hand, the richer boy who buys, may have been forced by the tyranny of habits, which he cannot throw off all at once, to expend more marks in fines than he can gain by his own exertion; and if he, by sacrificing the indulgence of his palate, obtains from his poorer neighbour the means of avoiding disgrace, we do not see that either party is much injured.

We have, however, personal marks, which, as we have before said, are given only for exertions of a high order—such as original essays, successful trans-

lations, difficult solutions of mathematical problems, and superior drawings. Twenty of these are paid for an hour's work, whatever may be the pupil's age. With personal marks, at the rate of eighty per hour, a boy may purchase for himself an additional holiday, which can be obtained by no other means; and in the payment of penalties, they may be commuted at an established rate for transferable marks. To prevent unnecessary interference in the arrangements, the purchase of holiday is confined to a certain afternoon in each week.

It frequently happens that a boy purchases exemption from the regular duties of the school, merely for the sake of labouring still more intensely at some occupation of his own choosing. We have known repeated instances where a boy, having paid for an afternoon's holiday, has employed the whole time in working hard at a drawing or translation, for which he has thought himself well paid if he obtained one-third of the marks which exemption from the regular exercises had cost him.

An inducement to reserve personal marks is offered, by making them the means of procuring rank. Thus twice in every half year, the first place is put up to auction, and given to the boy who is willing to sacrifice for it the greatest number of personal marks: the second place is then sold in the same manner, and so on. By this means, the possession of personal marks is made to bear upon the determination of the prizes, as will be explained

hereafter ; and so powerful is the motive thus created, that we find, on an examination of the accounts, that a boy of fourteen, although constantly in the possession of marks amply sufficient to obtain a holiday per week, bought but three quarters of a day's relaxation during a whole year. The same boy, at a subsequent arrangement, purchased his place on the list by a sacrifice of marks, sufficient to have obtained for him twenty-six half days' exemption from the labour and confinement of the school.

These marks, from the comparative infrequency of their donation by the teachers, and of their application to any purpose by the boys, can be made personal without any great labour of book-keeping.

*Silence and Minute Order.*

IT is not necessary for us to argue the necessity of preserving silence where many boys are employed in the same room. Our regulations for effecting this purpose are formed upon the principle, that it is much more easy to preserve perfect silence, than to maintain such an approximation as may be sufficient for all useful purposes ; and which would have the advantage of not placing the pupils under unnecessary restrictions : or, in other words, that it is impossible long to maintain any medium between great order and utter disorder. Keeping in view this principle, which experience has convinced us is correct, the committee has formed a code of regulations, imposing small fines on any who shall make the slightest noise either by speaking (except on the business of the class,) by moving about, or in any other way whatever. In some cases, signs have been substituted for words—as for instance, if a boy, when writing, has a bad pen, he holds it up, and it is changed, without a word spoken. If any boy move from his desk, except to attend the summons of a teacher, or to leave the school-room on the completion of his work, he pays a fine. In the small rooms, each teacher preserves silence in his own class ; but in the principal school-room, where there are generally many boys engaged under the writing-

master, or in private study, the whole duty of preserving silence falls upon one boy, who is called the *Silentiary*. This office is taken in rotation, from a list composed of such boys as having certain qualifications, choose to inscribe their names upon it. The silentary ought to levy all the fines which have been described. If the presiding teacher for the time being perceive that the silentary omits to take cognizance of any breach of the regulations, he imposes an equal fine on the officer himself. These fines are put into a till placed in a convenient situation, as a receptacle for all fines levied by this and other officers of the school, and they eventually find their way into the school bank. The silentary receives a salary of an appointed number of marks per hour, out of a fund raised partly by the tax on the talkative boys, and partly by a subsidy from time to time paid by the elder pupils. Thus it is the interest of the most influential boys to render the labours of the silentary as light as possible, as the salaries required will always be proportionate to the difficulties of the office. Certain individuals who have established a character for silence, to the satisfaction of the committee, are eased of half their contribution to this fund.

In order that the silentary may not himself disturb the peace in walking about, he is obliged to wear slippers, and he keeps his hat on to distinguish him from the other boys.

During the time for meals, a silentary is always

employed in the refectory. The office is taken at these times either by a day-boy, or by a boarder, who is willing, for the salary, to take his meals when the others have left the room.

At the general musters of the school, when the boys are all drawn up in ranks in the principal school-room, the care of the silence devolves on the prefects of the classes, (one to each rank,) who, acting under the superintendence of a teacher, are able to preserve the most exact order.

*The Monitor.*

THE office of monitor is filled in the order of age, commencing each half year with the eldest boy ; many individuals, however, are excused from serving. These are the members of the band, the day-boys, certain boys at the head of the school, the autarchs, some officers, all who have entered the school within the previous three months, and all foreigners who have arrived within twelve months. The number so privileged is generally about fifty ; but as there are nearly one hundred and twenty boys in the school, and the same individual keeps the office for a week, the duties of the monitor, which are by no means trifling, never devolve upon little boys.

The monitor has to ring the bell at the proper times, and to transact other necessary business connected with the attendance of the boys on their various avocations. As a great deal depends upon his punctuality, a system has been arranged, by which he is held to the strictest responsibility. A statement of the times at which the bell is to be rung, and of the other duties of the monitor, is hung in the school-room, where there is a clock ; a fine is imposed upon any one who shall ring the bell except under the immediate direction of the monitor, so that this officer knows that he must depend upon

his own vigilance; if, however, from any unavoidable circumstances, he is unable to attend to his duty, he pays a small fee to the boy who filled the office last, who then becomes the responsible person. If the monitor should ring the bell or perform any other duty at the wrong time, he pays a considerable fine, which increases with every minute of error, whether he be too early or too late.

In the course of the day the monitor has to ring the bell and make other signals more than sixty times: when this is done without a single error, he receives a certain reward of transferable marks, which goes on increasing for every consecutive perfect day. If the monitor go through the week without any error, he may claim the whole of the reward in personal marks: this, however, is but rarely the case, as the slightest perceptible error, even of a single second, is punishable by a fine. If the monitor is the first to give information respecting any error he may have committed, he saves one half of the fine. This practice is almost universal.



*Attendance.*

THIS is a subject to which very considerable attention has been paid. We are exceedingly desirous that our pupils should attend, at all times, with punctuality, and with good-will. The regular vacations, though necessary we believe to the health of both teachers and pupils, and advantageous in affording the latter opportunities of visiting their friends, and thus preserving those kindly feelings so conducive to the cultivation of good morals, are, nevertheless, productive of considerable inconvenience, by interrupting that regularity, which becoming more and more exact from day to day, attains to such a degree of perfection before the end of the session, as to contribute exceedingly to the comfort of the master, and the improvement of the scholar.

It requires no long train of argument, we presume, to convince the intelligent reader, that since the stated holidays are found to interfere with the habits of the boys, requisite for the business of the school, the irregular absence of individuals must be infinitely more injurious. Besides the loss of time to the absentee himself, great inconvenience is incurred by others. The operations of his classes will be impeded; the equality between himself and his fellows may be rendered less complete; and care and trouble become necessary to investigate the

cause of his absence. Indeed, the boy's taste for learning may be deeply injured in a very little time, if he find, on his return, that he has lost ground : and in a large number, where every one is elbowed by competitors, a very short cessation may leave him irrecoverably behind. It is almost incredible how decisively the effects of which we speak are felt among us. We have known instances where the injudicious indulgence of a holiday has materially altered an unfortunate boy's character ; and thus, in all probability, injured his usefulness and happiness for life.

Impressed with the truth of these considerations, we have made arrangements, by which punctuality of attendance entitles a boy to a reward, which goes on increasing from week to week during all the half-year, until the progression is interrupted by a failure, after which it commences anew. This regulation has produced very beneficial effects. Much time at the beginning of the session is at present well employed, which was heretofore almost thrown away, even by those boys who returned early, but who could not proceed with spirit, for want of the co-operation of such as were less punctual. As the rule sometimes bears hard on those who are absent from illness, or the direction of their friends, we have at various times received urgent requests to soften its rigour in particular instances — requests which we have been reluctantly compelled to refuse ; and not unfrequently without being able,

from want of leisure, to offer such reasons, for the line of conduct pursued, as might convince the parent that in not complying with his wishes, we were acting under a just sense of the interests of the body at large, and of his child in particular.

In the first place it should be remembered, that absence, where unconnected with improper conduct, does not, under the regulations in question, expose a boy to punishment, but only to the loss of a reward; which would have been given him expressly for the advantage enjoyed by his teachers and companions from his punctuality; beneficial both as to its immediate effect on the operations of the school, and as to the example which it offers to others. Now, in time of absence, as he confers no such benefit, there is no reason why he should receive the price of it: the individual may be pitied, but is not he also an object of pity who is born without a fair portion of talent?—and yet neither at school nor in after-life is it ever expected he should receive the rewards bestowed on ability.

It will be found also that Nature has divided her gifts more equally than is often supposed. To one she gives a strong mind; to another a strong body: one has quick perceptions; but his volatility prevents him from reaping the advantages which spring from patience and regularity. Why should not he who can be unremittingly punctual enjoy the distinction which his power naturally confers upon him, and which he may not be able to obtain by any

other means? A school should not unnecessarily depart from the model of real life. It is injudicious to induce habits of thinking and acting which must afterwards be reversed. In society it fortunately happens that no qualification goes without its reward. Brilliant powers are by no means the only passports to fortune. Some persons have believed them to receive less than a due share of encouragement: if so, another argument is furnished why they should not usurp undue credit at school, lest their possessors should afterwards be exposed to an unnecessary degree of mortification.

It is not, perhaps, refining too much to suppose that an early experience of the disadvantages of illness (which must be endured in all their bitterness in after-life, however they might be alleviated in youth by the artificial regulations of parents and teachers) may produce a disposition to sport with health less wantonly than is too often done by young persons. It sometimes happens that cessation from labour, and the indulgences supplied by sympathizing friends, quite overbalance the evils of illness in the mind of the little invalid, at least where it is not attended with much pain. This is a state of the feelings which we are willing to hope does not often occur, since it must have a tendency to induce both disingenuous and effeminate habits of mind: it cannot, however, be impolitic to throw so many advantages into the opposite scale, as may render absence on the score of sickness far from being de-

sirable. On the other hand, it has not been forgotten that no exertion should be spared to prevent a boy from associating unpleasant feelings with school. Black Monday ought to be an obsolete phrase; its meaning should only be gathered from obscure traditions. Something must be strangely wrong, when education, the best gift of one generation to another, is received with disgust.

To induce punctuality in our pupils, we find it to be of the first importance that the nominal and actual hour for assembling should with undeviating regularity be the same. There must be no uncertainty, no allowance for distance or accident—no excuse whatever must be admitted; and under this condition it is wonderful how easily the greatest distances are passed over, how few accidents occur, how soon all excuses vanish!

The minute exactness of our regulations respecting attendance will perhaps appear as ridiculous in description, as the effects which they produce may seem incredible.

At the close of a session it is customary to exhort the boys to a punctual return after the vacation; care is taken to point out the good effects of regularity, as exemplified by some, and perhaps the bad effects of an opposite line of conduct as shown by others. The day and the exact moment at which the first muster will be held is always stated, and for fear it may be forgotten, a printed memorandum of the time is given to each pupil. The hour is

twelve at noon precisely ; but all are invited, and those who reside at a distance are earnestly advised to be at the school the day before, or where circumstances may render that an inconvenient one for travelling, at any earlier time.

Two or three days before the close of the vacation the arrivals commence ; and on the last evening we find ourselves surrounded by a crowd of faces scarcely less happy than when we saw them last : But we cannot do better than extract from our little Magazine a description of the muster, at the beginning of the present half-year, as given by the Editor in the warmth of his juvenile feelings.

“ Our present session commenced on Thursday, January 20th, but many pupils who reside at a distance, anxious to secure their attendance at the first muster, came on Wednesday, ourselves of course among the number ; and from five P. M. to ten, noise and bustle reigned throughout the house ; coaches came one after another, full of wearied travellers ; who after taking their refreshments were ushered into one of the parlours, where Messrs. Hill had kindly provided cards, chess, and drafts, for such as chose to amuse themselves with these games ; but the continual entrance of old and new schoolfellows, and the consequent salutations and introductions, prevented any great regularity in these amusements.

“ The party whose arrival was most anxiously awaited, was that from London ; for in this were expected the two Greeks, who were coming to be instructed here ; and, as may be supposed, their appearance produced no small sensation.

“ Upon counting the number present this evening, it was found to be fifty ; but of these thirteen had remained here during the vacation.

“ On Thursday, about ten o'clock, the scene of confusion was renewed ; carriage after carriage rolled to the door till twelve o'clock, the time appointed for the first muster. The Greeks,

whose names are Eustrathios Rallis and Stamos Nakos, were so good as to appear on this occasion in the costume of their country, which is very splendid; this morning the curiosity which they excited exceeded that shown the preceding evening, and was testified by the dead silence which their entrance produced.

"We have great pleasure in stating that more were present at this muster than at any previous one: ninety-six pupils arrived in time; one more came during the muster, but the bell had ceased ringing, the drum had beaten, the doors were closed, and he could not be admitted.

"Upon examination it was found that only four\* individuals were absent who could have been present."

*Hazelwood Magazine, Vol. III.*

The numbers present will appear more extraordinary when it is understood that the school, at the close of the last session, consisted of one hundred and two boys only; of whom several had completed their education. It should be recollected also that the motives for punctuality cannot operate fully on the new comers, and that consequently many of them enter a few days too late.

Immediately after the muster a reward of fifty marks is distributed to each boy present; but no fine is incurred by absence. The school proceeds immediately to the election of the Committee. This body assembles, and appoints the various officers, and thus the system is at once brought into action.

Many remarkable and gratifying instances have occurred of boys making sacrifices for the sake of being present at the first muster.

During the Christmas vacation, at the end of

\* Of these four, it was afterwards discovered that one had left the school, and that another was unwell.

1823, J. I——, a boy only ten years of age, received an invitation to a children's ball, at which a very large party of his little friends was to be present. It happened unfortunately that the ball and the muster were appointed for the same day, which put the poor boy into a dilemma, as he was very anxious to attend both. This, however, being impracticable, it was necessary to make an election. The father, from whom we received the anecdote, very judiciously left the choice to the boy himself, without urging him one way or the other. The little fellow hesitated and wept, but at last determined to forego the ball. He was in his place at the muster, with tears in his eyes it is true, but no doubt proudly satisfied with the resolution he had made, and the firmness with which he had kept it.

At the commencement of 1824, J. B——, a boy ten years old, whose friends reside in London, arrived at the school a few minutes too late, in consequence of some delay which happened on the journey. This was very mortifying to the poor fellow, and so determined was he to be in time after the next vacation, that he was at school two days before it was absolutely necessary.

In January 1823, on the last day of the vacation, F. O——, fourteen years of age, residing in this neighbourhood, accompanied his friends on a visit to Warwick. As they were proceeding further, he was left to return to Birmingham by the coach. In consequence of some mistake as to time,



the boy found, upon going to the office, that the coach was gone. What was to be done? Another coach would pass through the place on its way to Birmingham late in the evening, but the people could not secure him a place; and as he had been directed not to ride on the outside, lest the cold of a winter's evening should increase an inflammation in his eyes, the chance of obtaining a seat was remote. The musters were then held at ten in the morning; the risk was therefore too great to be thought of. Left to his own guidance, the boy determined to adopt the most safe, but at the same time the most spirited line of conduct. He started immediately, and walked the whole distance from Warwick to Hazelwood, which is twenty-two miles, arriving at the latter place about nine at night, having made the greater part of his journey in the dark.

As in speaking of the daily general musters, we shall have frequent occasion to mention the musical band, we will here shortly describe its use and its present state. The boys assemble in certain classes, and proceed to the places where they are taught, as well as march to their meals, accompanied by music. We thus avoid much confusion and loss of time.

To induce boys to learn to play upon some instrument, and to enter the band, a weekly stipend of marks, and a small reward for the acquisition of a tune, is all that is required; the regular and frequent practice which is by this means obtained, (for the musicians perform twelve times per day,) assisted

by the occasional instruction of a master, ensures tolerable proficiency in the art.

We wish particularly to observe, that we have never found this employment to injure the health of the boys in the least *dégré*. This we attribute to the shortness of the performances, which seldom occupy more than a minute each.

At present the band consists of fifteen performers, including one of the teachers. The instruments in use are four flutes, four clarionets, two Kent bugles, two French horns, a trumpet, a bassoon, and a drum.

We have also an inferior band, consisting of boys who are training for the upper band. It performs three times in each day.

The general musters of the school, namely those at which all, whether boarders or day-boys, are expected to be present, are three in each day. The first muster, for the greater part of the year, is at seven o'clock. The second muster is always at a quarter before ten, and the third at two. In February and November the first muster takes place at half-past seven; in January and December at eight. At the general musters it is necessary to ascertain what boys are absent, in order that enquiries may be made into the cause, and fines levied or remitted, according to circumstances. Our mode of accomplishing this end was formerly that in general use, namely, by calling over a list of names; but, about five years ago, we formed a plan, which has not only the advantage of superior accuracy, but also of

greater speed. This plan has received frequent improvements.

At the musters in question the bell rings two minutes. During this time the boys assemble in the principal school-room, and furnish themselves with the books, or other apparatus, which they may want for the next lessons. At the close of the two minutes, when the bell ceases, the monitor beats a rally on the drum, and keeps his eye steadily on the second-hand of the clock. With the ninth and tenth seconds he strikes two blows on the drum, which are the signal for the band to be in readiness, and with the eighteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth, three blows. The doors are instantly closed by an individual stationed for that purpose, and for the present no one is admitted. At the same moment the band commences a tune, which is generally played once through, the other boys occasionally accompanying the music with their voices in singing. In the mean time all place themselves along parallel lines permanently marked in the floor. There are ten ranks thus formed, including the band, and each has its *class-prefect*, for the preservation of order.

With the exception of the band, which contains fourteen, and of one other division, whose complement (now fifteen) varies according to the state of the school, each rank consists of ten boys, exclusive of the prefect. The ten class-prefects are considered as forming another division, making in all nine exact *decads*, and two additional ranks, each greater than

a decad. At the head of each division against the wall is hung a list of its members. Certain teachers who superintend, and a boy who records the absentees, and who is counted as a member of one of the ranks, take their station on a *dais*, or elevated stage, at one end of the room, facing which the ranks are drawn up.

At the expiration of twenty seconds from the commencement of the tune, a teacher exhibits a placard with the word "PLACE" inscribed upon it, after which no boy is allowed to join his rank, though he may be in the room. During the remainder of the tune, it is the business of the second boy in each rank to ascertain, by counting the boys present, whether any are absent, and if so, the number of absentees. If the rank be incomplete, the teller puts up his hand. At the same time the names of the absentees are found by the boy at the head of the division, both officers holding themselves in readiness to speak.

The moment the tune ceases, a boy who attends closely to the clock, declares, in the briefest manner, the time which has elapsed since the bell began to ring; taking it for granted, as he safely may, that the monitor was punctual. The time is recorded by the *registrar*, who repeats it aloud, before the business proceeds. Every other record is repeated in the same manner. Immediately after this, the second boy in such imperfect rank as is nearest to the *dais*, declares aloud the result of his examination;

as for instance, he may say, "The ninth rank has two absent." The boy at the head of the same rank then calls the names of such absentees, one at a time, while they are entered by the registrar: the other incomplete ranks call in the same manner. The two variable divisions, namely the band and the eighth rank, always call, whether complete or not; and with them a mode somewhat different is adopted, for the purpose of informing the teacher, who checks the counting, of the number that ought to be present. Thus, if two boys are absent, the teller will say, "Two out of fourteen absent from the band," or, "Two out of fifteen absent from the eighth rank." The shorter form serves for the decads, because their number of members is always known. This part of the process is concluded by one of the teachers, who declares the number of complete decads.

The next process acts as a check upon that already described, and is as follows: The teller of the rank which first called, declares the number present in his division; thus he may say "Eight." The teller of the next rank which called adds to this the number present in his division: thus, supposing him to belong to the eighth rank, he may say, "and thirteen make twenty-one." He is followed by the teller of the next rank which called, and so on through them all. The teacher who counts the complete decads adds to the last total the number of boys which they contain; and the registrar, who, in the mean time has counted the absentees which

he has entered, adds their number to that last expressed, at the same time declaring the total; which, if the operation has been correctly performed, is equal to the whole number of pupils. If any error has arisen, it is readily detected by repeating the process.

During this time, several teachers are occupied besides those already mentioned. One of them keeps a record, similar to that made by the registrar, as a check upon his proceedings; another counts the number of boys present in each rank, in order to ensure correctness in that part of the process; and a third follows the casting.

When the total is affirmed to be correct, which is almost always the case in the first instance, the boy who has attended to the clock, declares the time, as before; and another boy, who has also watched the dial throughout the operation, states the number of seconds occupied, by a computation which he carries on independently of the first boy. Both are recorded, and serve to check one another.

The word "form" is now given; and all, except the band, arrange in the classes which are about to be exercised, still observing the same lines marked on the floor. For this change of place fifteen seconds are allowed, which are marked by striking the drum. After that time, if any boys are out of place, the last who joins his class pays a small fine.

The classes being formed, the word "March" is given; the band plays, and they all proceed to their

respective rooms. In the mean time the registrar enters in the general account of attendance, as present, the names of all who do not appear in the report of absentees. Those who were not present at the muster have the time of their arrival marked immediately as they enter the school-room; and unless they can show very satisfactory cause for their absence, a fine is levied upon each.

This process, which has required such length of description, and which has the appearance of great complexity, is exceedingly simple in operation: it is performed with such rapidity, though without haste or bustle, that strangers are frequently unable to follow it.

From our registers we find that, during the last session, the average time occupied, from the moment the tune ceased to that when the order was given to "Form," was only forty-two seconds. To this if, as is fair, we add the fifteen seconds allowed for forming into the second set of classes, we shall find that the whole time employed is under a minute. To call a roll of a hundred names could scarcely occupy less than five minutes. In drawing this comparison we have not taken into the account the time occupied by the music, because, whether we pursued our present plan or called a list, that time must be allowed for the boys to assemble in their classes.

As saving the time of the whole body of teachers and pupils, we conceive these regulations to be of no

mean importance ; and as the essential part, at least, may be readily adopted by any public teacher, we hope those of our readers who do not belong to this class (if any such have proceeded so far in this uninteresting detail) will excuse our continuing the subject a little farther, for the sake of giving a report of an actual muster which has just taken place. Such, we think, will be the best means of removing any obstacles that may yet remain to the full comprehension of the plan. We should premise, that as no intimation of our intentions to relate the proceedings on this occasion was given to the pupils, this muster may be considered as a fair specimen.

April 12, 1825. At nine hours and forty-five minutes the bell commenced ringing ; the boys being at this time distributed about the premises, and many in the playgrounds, some parts of which are 200 yards from the school-room door. At nine hours and forty-seven minutes the bell ceased, and a rally was beaten immediately on the drum. With the ninth and tenth seconds two blows were given ; the band was now in readiness. The eighteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth seconds were also marked by blows on the drum. The doors were instantly closed, and the band struck up " Home, sweet home," which the boys accompanied with their voices, giving us the whole of the song, which made this part of the process longer than usual. While the air was playing, at forty-seven minutes and forty seconds, the placard with the word " Place" inscribed



upon it was exhibited, at which time all present were in their ranks. At fifty minutes and forty-five seconds the singing ceased, and a boy immediately called, "Five—forty-five;" meaning that five minutes and forty-five seconds had elapsed since the ringing of the bell commenced. The registrar recorded and repeated the time. *The teller of the eighth rank* then called—"One out of fifteen absent from the eighth rank." *The first boy in the same rank*—"Stamos Nakos."\* *The registrar, while recording the name*, "Stamos Nakos." *A member of the band*—"The band fourteen complete." *A teacher*—"Nine decads complete." *The teller of the eighth rank*—"Fourteen;" *The member of the band*—"And fourteen make twenty-eight;" *The teacher*—"And ninety make one hundred and eighteen;" *The registrar*—"And one absentee makes up one hundred and nineteen; which completes the list." *The boy watching the dial*—"Six—ten;" (meaning six minutes and ten seconds from the moment the bell began to ring.) *The registrar*—"Six—ten." *Another boy looking at the dial*—"Twenty-five seconds," (the whole time occupied by the calling and casting). *The registrar*—"Twenty-five seconds." *The presiding teacher*—"Form." The drummer now beat the drum fifteen times, each interval marking a second. In the mean time, all

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\* A Greek, who was unwell at the time.

the boys, except one or two, had arrived at their places; in two or three seconds more the ranks were complete; when a boy called out, "I am last."

*Teacher*—\* "Ten;" (meaning that the boy had incurred a fine of ten marks, which was immediately paid to the prefect of the class). *Teacher*—"March." The band played, and the classes at the same time proceeded to their respective places.

The reader will perhaps find some difficulty in believing that so much business could be transacted in so short a space of time as twenty-five seconds. The writer, however, can assure him, that he watched the dial with the greatest care, and is absolutely certain that the time recorded was fully as great as that occupied. Twenty-five seconds are considerably below the average before stated, as it not often happens that the number of absentees is quite so small.†

\* The full fine is twenty marks; one-half is remitted to those who report their own errors.

† Our principle of making every act performed in the school conduce to the improvement of the boys, has been admirably illustrated by a writer in the London Magazine, in a review of our first edition. An article which, while it must interest the general reader, by the acuteness of its reasoning, and the felicity of its illustrations, will repay the closest attention of the professional man, by the profound views which it will open to him of the nature and extent of his own science. We subjoin the following extract:—"On the new system it is so contrived, that what is technically called *calling over*, which, on any system, is a necessary arrangement for the prevention of mischief, and which usually terminates there, becomes a positive means of cultivating an elementary rule of arithmetic in the junior students, and an attention to accuracy in all. A school, in short, on

From the great precision which is observed with regard to time, (for if a boy were a single second too late, he would be excluded from the room), it may perhaps be thought almost impossible for a pupil to be punctual for any long period : we believe, however, that this rigid exactitude, by making the time absolutely certain, is a great cause of the punctuality we have induced. The system of rewards already described, is no doubt another important cause. When a boy is actually occupied at a distance on the school business, his name is struck from the list of absentees ; as for instance, when engaged in surveying, or on a franks' excursion. But neither illness nor engagement of any other kind is a valid plea. Notwithstanding this, it will be seen that long continued punctuality is by no means uncommon among us.

At the close of the last session there were twenty-three boys who had been present at every general muster throughout the half year ; fifteen who had been present throughout the whole year ; nine a year and a half ; five, two years ; and two, two years and a half.

These numbers were considerably diminished, a short time before the end of the session, by an attack of the measles, which of necessity confined

this system, *burns its own smoke* : the mere negative conditions of its daily goings on, the mere waste products of its machinery, being converted into the positive pabulum of its life and motion."

*Lond. Mag. April & May, 1824.*

many boys to the nursery. In lameness and other complaints that do not require continual confinement to one room, it has often happened that a boy has requested a good-natured schoolfellow to carry him down to the muster on his back.

Most of those who were constant during the last session, have continued their punctuality to the present time,\* and many others have as yet been regular in their attendance through the current half-year. The two boys who, at the end of the last session, had been punctual for the greatest length of time, are now hastening towards the completion of the third year. These boys are thirteen years of age. We recollect that, about two years ago, one of them threw down some hot water, which had been carelessly left in a passage, and scalded his foot. Just as the accident happened, the bell was heard to summon the boys to a general muster. The pain, which must have been considerable, was immediately forgotten, and the boy's only apprehensions were, lest he should be too late for admission. R. K—, a day-scholar, who left the school at Christmas last, at the age of fourteen, was once perhaps the most irregular of all our pupils, and was taxed for the habit; that is to say, he was put on the list of "irregular attendants," and made to pay a weekly tax, increasing till he attended punctually for a whole week. In time he satisfied the Committee that the habit was cured, and his

\* April 1825.

name was erased from the list. But, in curing his bad habits, he had formed good ones, and he soon became exceedingly punctual. Being a day-boy, and living more than two miles from the school, he had to walk through all weather, and in the winter was obliged to rise long before it was light. These difficulties, however, he surmounted; and we find that from March 1823, till the end of 1824, he was absent from four musters only, the amount of lateness for all the four being twenty-eight minutes. We do not hesitate to say, that this one improvement was the cause of a complete alteration in the boy's character; and no doubt will materially affect the character of the man. He was a boy of very little talent, and, although he had been even then some years among us, ranked very low indeed. He was almost constantly a defaulter, and was frequently brought before the court of justice. But with the improvement in his attendance came respectability in the eyes of his companions. He was become the most regular of the day-boys, and this gave him a rank which he was anxious to maintain in other respects. In a short time he attained the grade of frank, and never again appeared at the bar of the court of justice. When he left the school, his acquirements, every thing considered, were very respectable.

W. B—, another day-scholar (eleven years of age), who entered the school about three months ago, shows a remarkable desire to be punctual. A few

weeks since, when the mornings were dark, he would frequently arise in the middle of the night to ascertain the time. One night, some member of the family, observing a light in the boy's chamber, went in rather alarmed, and found him dressed, but fast asleep on his bed, with his watch in his hand. We do not mention this anecdote because we think there is any advantage in disturbing a boy's rest, but to show how soon the system takes hold of an ingenuous mind. In a short time the habit of rising early will be formed, and then the boy will sleep soundly till the proper hour. If these effects had been produced by the fear of excessive punishment, or even by the hope of extraordinary reward, they would be of little value ; but we must look for more powerful motives than the dread of a fine which may at any time be purchased for a halfpenny, or the hope of a reward scarcely more valuable, before we rest satisfied with the explanation. Public opinion is with us most decidedly in favour of punctuality. The most influential boys in the school are among the most regular.

A few months ago, J. D—, aged thirteen, was invited by his friends to go home to be present at the races. The boy respectfully declined the invitation, stating that he should not like to interrupt the regularity of his attendance. Subsequently on a visit to Hazelwood, his parents urged his acceptance of the invitation, but all to no purpose ; their indulgent intentions were frustrated by the boy's firmness.

We fear we shall tire the reader with our trifling anecdotes;—one more, and we have done. Two or three years ago, J. V—, fifteen years of age, for many evenings together rode on horseback from Hazelwood to his father's house, a distance of twelve miles, after the labours of the day, and returned in good time for the seven o'clock muster the next morning. His object was to see a brother, who was then dangerously ill.

*Modes of Instruction.*

THE School consists of nearly one hundred and twenty boys, who, with a few exceptions, are arranged into classes for each department of study, according to their proficiency in that department. Thus, a boy, who stands in the highest class of Latinists, may be in the second of Arithmeticians, and so on.

Ten or twelve of the youngest boys in the school do not enter into the general arrangement of classes, but work in a separate room, in order that they may not be exposed to the rigid discipline which is adopted with respect to the elder boys. These little boys receive lessons from a variety of teachers, who attend them in their own room. The other boys of the school are, for most exercises, divided into eight classes; and as we have six class-rooms, besides the principal school-room, and that for the little boys, each class, with a few exceptions, has its own appropriate apartment, where the apparatus of the class is kept, and where every convenience is afforded for facilitating its operations.

The instruction given in classes comprehends orthography, geography, history, parsing, penmanship, the mathematics, (commencing with common arithmetic, and including mensuration, trigonometry,



geometry, and algebra,) French, Latin, Greek, and Gymnastics. All the boys are engaged in the greater number of these pursuits; but a few of the studies are followed by a part of the school only. The little boys and new scholars are occasionally examined in their knowledge of the laws of the school by a teacher, who is careful to explain any part which may have been misunderstood.

In exercising the classes, great care is taken to fix the attention of the boys by making the business as interesting as possible; by seeing that every thing is fully comprehended; and by frequently changing the pupil's occupations. We endeavour to lead the pupils to reason upon the different steps as they proceed, and invite them to put questions to the teacher, when any thing transpires which they do not fully comprehend. This is encouraged by listening to such questions with patience, and answering them with candour, even when they are not strictly relevant to the subject under consideration.

It frequently happens that even the very little boys will propose exceedingly judicious quæries. A few months ago, T. S—, aged eight years, was in a class, receiving a lesson on Roman history. The passage under consideration was the story of the Gracchi. The teacher explained to his young pupils the active part taken by these noble-spirited men in resisting the tyranny of the senate. At the conclusion of the story, he described the manner in

which Caius Gracchus, procured the stroke of death from the hand of his slave. Here the teacher was interrupted by the boy, with the following question : “ Pray, sir, if the Gracchi were the friends of liberty, how happened it that one of them kept a slave himself ? ”

*Mechanism of the Classes.*

WHEN a class is assembled for exercise, a variety of means offer themselves for stimulating the ardour of the members artificially. The methods of this kind, by which love of distinction, or other such reward is made to act with force on the general body, are intended by the phrase here taken for a title.

The mechanism adopted for this purpose by ourselves, is of three kinds, each of which is chosen occasionally, as best fitted for the particular subject of study.

The first is to permit the lesson to be completed, and then to arrange the class in the order corresponding to the excellence of the entire performances. The advantages of this method are, that, speaking generally, it absolves the teacher from vigilant superintendence during the progress of the exercise, and that where a satisfactory decision can be made, it effects the most correct arrangement. Its disadvantages appear to be, that, for the most

part, it is restricted to such exercises as are capable of being exhibited in a permanent form, as penmanship, drawing, and written translations; that it weakens the stimulus of emulation as to the separate parts, by reducing it unto an expectation of success or failure, necessarily vague as well as future, instead of realizing its power by instantaneous adjudication, and that the labour of estimation is embarrassed by the necessity of contrasting excellences on the one hand, with defects on the other, incapable of a satisfactory comparison and valuation. It will be replied that the last objection lies in reality against, perhaps, every conceivable mode of arrangement, and that it is charged especially on the method now contemplated, merely because it is there most open to observation. But this very circumstance of liability to detection is of the highest importance; since, to make emulation in the best manner effective, decisions will avail not so much by their precise justice, as by their aptitude for satisfying the parties concerned, and their consequent influence on the feelings and actions of these parties. This first method seems, however, upon the whole, the fittest for arranging written exercises of every kind as well as drawings.

The second method, which, like the first, is in general use, consists in assigning to each member of the class in his turn, a portion of the lesson, and in case of his failure in the requisite perfection, calling on the next in succession to make the effort,

permitting this last competitor, if successful, to take precedence of the first; but in case of a second failure, passing on to the third pupil under the same condition. This method brings emulation into speedy action, by rewarding every fortunate effort with an instant pledge of eventual success, namely, the retention, if not the acquisition, of an upper place. Unlike the first method, it requires no permanent result of the exercise performed, but brings into judgment every part of the business, as it is in turn gone through. We make a farther advantage of this mechanism, by requiring the boys whose turns pass without success, to repeat the part when done well by another, and thus to profit by their companion's example. Those who adopt this variation from the usual form, will be astonished at first, in finding boys to fail in even the attempt at repeating after others; though, on the face of the thing, the effort might appear too easy to be worth prescribing. When cases do occur wherein repetition is known to be needless, the rule can be set aside at the teacher's discretion.

One chief disadvantage that attends this mode of arrangement is, that at the close, the upper places do not indicate in the holders a general previous attention to the business of the class, but rather an attention towards the end of the lesson; for a mistake in the latter part of the exercise, may undo all that the early part has effected; and the consequence is, that a disingenuous boy will neglect his duty at

the commencement, reserving his strenuous efforts for the close. This artifice is in a degree counteracted by releasing those who may be for the moment at the head of the class, without waiting for the completion of the business. To obviate, however, suspicion of partiality, it is well to do this at the ringing of a bell, or by some other appointment which takes the choice of the instant out of the teacher's hands. Another objection to which this method lies open is, that it gives an indolent pupil opportunities of withdrawing his attention from the lesson, so long as his turn is at a distance, and thus reduces him, in a measure, to a solitary student of such parts only as call him into prominent exertion. This evil is lessened by keeping the number of the class low, and by subdividing as much as may be the business to be done, and thus promoting a rapid rotation.

This latter method of arrangement, with the modifications and precautions above recommended, appears, on the whole, most suitable for a class when exercised in reading, strictly so called.

For exercises consisting principally of answers to the teacher's questions, we have devised a third form of mechanism; which is free from the objections above stated, in as much as it keeps the attention of the pupils constantly alive, by removing the necessity for their answering, in a prescribed order, and by enabling a boy by successful efforts at the commencement of the exercise, not only to obtain elevation in the class, but to accumulate the means

of defence against the future attacks of his competitors. For this purpose the class is provided with a box of counters, consisting of small pieces of wood, about three or four inches long, and of a form to be readily held in the hand.

We have generally met with considerable difficulty in explaining the mode of using these counters, though it is simple enough in practice. Perhaps it will be more intelligible if, in describing it, we begin after the process has been some time in operation. Suppose a class to have been exercised ten or fifteen minutes in mental arithmetic; we should probably find the state of things to be as follows:—Several members of the class would have one or more counters in their hands, while others would be without any: showing, as will afterwards appear, that the exertions of the boys had not been equally successful. The state of things as regards the counters will also exhibit the comparative success of the different members of the class; as the number of correct answers each individual has given may be ascertained by adding together all the counters below him, and such as he may hold in his hand. Thus, without going through the whole class, we will suppose the boy at the head to have no counters in his hand; but the second boy to have two, and the third one. Also, that the total number of counters held by those who are below the third, is eight. One familiar with the process, would at once see that the third boy must have given nine

correct answers, the second eleven, and the first the same number. We will now suppose the class to proceed : a question is proposed by the teacher, and every member endeavours to be first in giving the correct answer. He who succeeds (and if more than one speak at once, the preference is given to him who is then lowest,) is entitled to receive a counter ; and he obtains it according to a general rule, which we shall render more simple by supposing a boy, not a member of the class, to stand above them all, with the box of sticks in his hand, ready to supply every demand which may be made. The rule is this :—When a pupil is entitled to a counter, he receives it from the boy immediately above him, if his demand can be met, otherwise he ascends in the class till he finds some one who can give him a counter ; when, having received it, he takes his seat next below the donor. If, however, when about to ascend, he has counters already in his possession, he gives them up to the boy next above him, as those counters must have been already gained by the latter as well as by himself. Let us now apply the rule to the case already supposed. If the third boy should be entitled to an additional counter, he would take one of those in the possession of the second boy ; but would not sit above him, because the second boy would still have given one correct answer more than himself. If the second boy in the class should be first to answer the question, he would take down the first boy, with whom he was before on an equality,

and receive a counter from the box ; in passing his class-mate, however, he would deliver to him the counter he before held. If the first boy should be the one to succeed, he would take a counter from the box, and thus obtain a defence against the second.

To repress inconsiderate answers, a boy is obliged to forfeit a counter for a failure. This he does by giving one to the boy next above ; or when he has no counter to forfeit, by placing himself below the next inferior who has a counter, claiming, however, when such inferior has a plurality of counters, all except the one to be forfeited. When there are no counters below the boy who forfeits, he goes to the bottom of the class, and gives a counter from the box to the boy who was previously lowest. When forfeits are admitted into the mechanism of the class, it is clear that it is not possible to ascertain the exact number of correct answers each individual has given ; still, however, the counters mark the relative success of the competitors.

It will now, we hope, be scarcely necessary to say how the business of the class commences. Of course, at this time all the counters are in the box, and the boy who answers the first question goes to the top of the class, and takes a counter from the stock. As, for the sake of uniformity, the preference when two speak together, is, even at the beginning of the lesson, given to the lowest, the boys, at the commencement of business, place themselves in



the inverse order of their rank, as determined by some previous arrangement.

From the fear of prolixity, we have omitted to mention some slight variations which may occasionally be made with advantage. They would, however, in all probability, suggest themselves to any teacher who should adopt the general plan.

### *Routine of Exercises.*

THE classes for each department of study have a certain routine of exercises, increasing in difficulty with the rank of the class. Each class proceeds, time after time, over nearly the same ground; but, as the superior boys gradually leave the school, and make room for a constant accession of new comers, and as frequent opportunities are afforded for those who are qualified to advance in their classes, each pupil may, in time, work his way through every gradation; it must depend, however, on his talent and attention, whether his ascent be rapid or otherwise.

Each routine of exercises is reduced to writing, and is referred to as occasion requires. It would be tedious to detail all; a selection will suffice to show their general arrangement; after which, we shall satisfy ourselves by pointing out the principles on which each routine is formed. That which we have chosen was drawn up, at the request of the confer-

ence, by one of the youngest of our teachers, who had paid considerable attention to the subject. It may be necessary to premise, that the classes are numbered from the highest to the lowest.

*“ Geography.*

“ THE lower school.—To commence by drawing maps of the different parts of the school premises, as the play-ground, palaestra, road to the bath, &c.; afterwards to make similar maps of the road to the town, including the lanes which lead to the church, monument, and other well-known places. The neighbouring houses should be marked, and every thing drawn as nearly as possible to a correct scale; this exercise should, in the first instance, be practised by a class of pupils, and the teacher chalk the map on a board laid horizontally. The members of the class should then repeat the operation, each individual making use of a slate and pencil.

“ When this exercise has been carried as far as the local knowledge of the pupils will permit, the teacher should show them the map of the country twenty-five miles round Birmingham; tell them what is meant by the words land, water, hill, mountain, valley, common, pool, spring, brook, river, ford, and cataract; teach them to distinguish the roads which lead to their respective homes; to point out the neighbouring villages, parks, large pools, woods, &c. and to trace the routes taken by the Franks, in their excursions. Show them Warwick, and the print of its ancient castle; the Roman road, which has endured for 1500 years; Stratford, the birth-place of Shakspeare; and every other spot, the history of which is calculated to interest the class. The teacher might then take the map of the British Isles, explain the meaning of the ordinary geographical terms—*island, peninsula, strait, coast, cape, mouth of a river, source of a river, lake, sea, gulf, bay, capital city, range of mountains, country, and kingdom.* Show them how the island of Great Britain is natu-

rally divided into three countries; trace the principal rivers from their sources to the sea; point out the principal towns and spots connected with historical events; ask questions concerning the different journeys which may have been taken by the boys, either in coming to school, visiting their friends, or any other excursion; propose journeys, as from London to Edinburgh, and ask through what towns it will be necessary to pass, what rivers must be crossed, the probable time occupied in such a journey, and the distance between the different towns. Use Holland's Geography, from the third to the thirteenth page; afterwards to learn to point out all the countries of Europe, and the chief divisions of the other quarters; to detail particulars respecting the situation of different places; to use a globe.

" 8th Class.—To be taught the meaning of the ordinary geographical terms, and to learn to point out the four grand divisions of land, all the countries and seas of Europe, and the principal subdivisions of the other continents.

" 7th Class.—To begin with the exercises of the eighth class; afterwards to be taught the application of the terms north, south, east, and west, in the following manner: the teacher, pointing to a country—(take Italy) may say, 'Tell me some country which lies to the north of Italy.' When this has been done, the teacher may take another country, or name another quarter. Occasionally let him lay the map horizontally, and according to the cardinal points.

" 6th Class.—To go through the exercises of the seventh class, and to point out all the principal seas, and islands in the world, and the mountains, chief cities, and rivers of the European countries; to use Beasley's Geography, from the sixth to the nineteenth page.

" 5th Class.—When perfect in the exercises of the sixth class, to acquire a knowledge of the temperature of climate in different countries; to use Beasley's Geography, from the sixth to the nineteenth page, and Woodbridge's Map of Climates.\*

" 4th Class.—To become acquainted with the principal cities,

\* See Woodbridge's Geography. This useful little work as yet has appeared only in the United States. It is now, we believe, in course of publication in this country.

mountains, rivers, volcanoes, capes, and straits, in the world; the animal, vegetable, and mineral productions of the different countries; and to be taught to find by the map the latitude of any given place; to be exercised with such questions as the following. 'Through what seas, and near to what countries will it be necessary to pass, in making a voyage from Liverpool to Calcutta?'—to use the whole of Beasley's Geography.

"3d Class.—To continue the exercises of the 4th class; to become acquainted with the manners and customs of different nations; the artificial divisions of the earth's surface, the method of finding the longitude of any place; the causes of day and night and of the variation of the seasons, and the principal features of the solar system; to use Bransby's Geography, Beasley's Astronomy, and a globe.

"2d Class. — To continue the exercises of the third class; to study astronomy, to work problems on the globe, to acquire a knowledge of the different religions, and various forms of government, of statistics, and of the principles of political economy."

Here we consider our course as terminating. For the future geographical knowledge of the pupil we depend upon his private study. Our library being tolerably well supplied with books of travels, the perusal of which, together with the study of the requisite maps, forms rather a large branch of the voluntary labour. The further study of astronomy, being intimately connected with the mathematics, falls into that department.

There is, however, another geographical class, which is called the first, consisting of the members of the highest French class. This is taught by the French master, the whole of the proceedings being carried on in his language; improvement in

French being quite as much the object, as the acquisition of geographical knowledge.

### *Orthography.*

IN learning Orthography, an exercise from which, of course, the superior boys are exempted, the pupil is principally occupied in transcribing from printed books. The transcript is afterwards corrected by a teacher, and a small fine levied for each mistake. Sometimes the pupils are engaged in writing from the dictation of one of their number ; but this is done rather as a test of their acquirements, than as a means of instruction.

Occasionally the few general rules which are applicable to our orthography, are explained. Murray's Exercises is a useful book in furnishing these rules ; but we object to using the examples which follow ; at least, to placing them in a boy's hands. The power of spelling correctly depends principally upon the impressions conveyed through the sense of sight, and, therefore, it is injured by setting before the eye instances of false orthography. It will, perhaps, be said, that the pupil knows the orthography to be false, and therefore that no injurious effect can take place. But if the premises were correct, we should object to the conclusion: the fact, however, is, that in many instances the pupil is deceived. In the book to which we have referred, all the words, whether correct or not, are printed

in the same type, and have no distinctive mark whatever.

A favourite exercise is to set the boys to compose sentences, in which words occur similar in sound, but different in orthography. Many amusing examples of this description are furnished by Beasley's Dictation Exercises.

We may here again mention our printing establishment, which we find to assist exceedingly in correcting habits of false orthography. It furnishes us too with the means of multiplying, at a small expense, copies of papers which are frequently wanted for the purposes of the school, and this, with the promptitude so important in a large establishment.

### *History.*

OUR pupils receive regular lessons on History. The teacher generally commences by narrating some historical fact; he afterwards questions his class with a view to render his account perfectly intelligible, and to fix it in the memory of his pupils. In the course of the lesson he frequently refers to the maps connected with his subject; he has sometimes recourse to biographical charts, and he makes use of historical plates to illustrate the events under consideration. For the lower classes we have found Mrs. Trimmer's little prints very serviceable; we have them mounted in a tabular form, and chrono-

logically arranged. Pupils of the highest class pay considerable attention to Gray's *Memoria Technica*; we have not, however, extended the use of this work to the inferior classes, as we think it desirable that the pupil should become well acquainted with events before his memory is taxed to remember particular dates.

### *English Grammar.*

IN giving our pupils a knowledge of English Grammar we make but little use of the grammar-book; composition and parsing being the exercises on which we chiefly depend. In the art of composition our pupils receive regular lessons on the plan recommended by the Abbé Gaultier, and now practised with eminent success by Dr. Gilchrist the Orientalist, at whose suggestion we adopted it. The teacher reads a passage aloud to his class, omitting such words, clauses, or sentences, as he supposes his pupils able to supply; the class then attempts to fill up these blanks; and in the course of this exercise, when any inelegant or ungrammatical expression is offered, the teacher takes advantage of the opportunity to explain the reason for its rejection. This process is applied both to prose and verse. Occasionally, in the superior classes, the teacher gives only the ideas to be expressed, and leaves his pupils to clothe them in words. This is usually done orally. In parsing we begin with those

branches which are best suited to the young pupil's comprehension ; and it is our aim throughout to avoid technicalities and to appeal to the common sense of the boys. The superior classes learn the syntactical, and, to a certain extent, the rhetorical figures.

### *Penmanship.*

OUR mode of teaching this art differs so widely from that in common use, that we have devoted a chapter to the subject, to which we must refer the reader. In this place we shall content ourselves with stating, that our object is to give the pupil, at an early age, the power of writing a good current hand, which we find it possible to accomplish in much less time than is usually devoted to penmanship.

### *Arithmetic.*

IN teaching Arithmetic we are first careful to give to the pupils a perfect knowledge of the application of the rule on which they are entering, and also of the reasons why certain technical processes are adopted.

At these times the class is arranged before a large black board, on which the operation is chalked, much in the same manner as it is usually written with a pencil on a slate ; only that with us the calculations



are performed aloud, the teacher merely writing the figures as they are named by the members of the class. A considerable portion of the time is employed by the teacher and his class in entering into a complete investigation of the nature of the problem to be solved; and after an answer to the arithmetical question has been obtained, the probability of its accuracy is ascertained by a process, in almost all cases carried on without the use of figures, which is technically called *calculation by round numbers*. Thus, for instance—suppose the problem which has been solved to be the following:—"What are the yearly wages of a servant who receives 3*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.* for fifty-nine days of servitude?" The class proceeds to reason aloud upon the question somewhat in the following manner, each member taking what part he can in the process:—"One year is rather more than six times as much as fifty-nine days; therefore the year's wages, or the answer to the question, ought to be rather more than six times as much as 3*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.* Six times 3*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.* are equal to 22*l.* 19*s.*; therefore the answer ought to be rather more than 22*l.* 19*s.* The answer is rather more than 22*l.* 19*s.*, and, therefore, it is probably correct;" or "the answer is not a little more than 22*l.* 19*s.*; and therefore it must be incorrect:" as the case may be. In giving to the pupils just and clear conceptions of the nature of the problem, and the various methods of solving it, we have found this exercise of the greatest utility.

Every arithmetician must be aware that the great length of a solution generally results from the minuteness to which the answer is drawn out; and that while a long array of figures is necessary to determine the less important parts, a very short series would be sufficient to ascertain the truth, within certain and frequently narrow limits. Nor is calculation by round numbers inconsistent with considerable accuracy, when care is taken to balance the errors by throwing them sometimes on one side and sometimes on the other: so that it seems peculiarly adapted for checking long and laborious operations, which, while they are capable of giving a more perfect result, are also open to greater errors.

When the class has worked a few operations at full length, it proceeds with the problems which next arise only so far as to express the operation in the algebraic formulæ. Thus, suppose the question already given to be still under consideration: the pupils would select and arrange the terms; ascertain, by reasoning on the nature of the question, which of the terms should be used as multipliers, which of them as a divisor; and proceed till the whole operation had been reduced to the following expression:—

$$\frac{3l. 16s. 6d. \times 365}{59} = \text{the answer.}$$

They might here calculate an approximate answer in the manner already described. Another problem is now taken and treated in the same manner. By

these means a class is enabled to reason on the nature of many questions, and to point out the modes of solving them in a very short time. When the class has had considerable exercise of this kind, facility in the mechanical part of the process is obtained by private practice on the slate.

As soon as a pupil has mastered commercial arithmetic, he joins a class which is exercised in land-surveying, trigonometry, algebra, and other more difficult branches of the mathematics. In the summer months this class frequently goes out with a teacher, to make a survey of some part of the neighbourhood. Occasionally such excursions are extended to some distance, and occupy the whole day. A short time ago, a survey was made of part of the Ickenield-street, as it still remains, on Sutton Coldfield, in Staffordshire; from which a map was afterwards constructed, including the neighbouring roads and fences, together with longitudinal and transverse sections of the Roman road. The whole district surveyed is about three miles long, and half a mile wide. Employments of this kind are very delightful to boys.

Rather an extensive trigonometrical survey, composed of triangles, some of whose sides are more than fourteen miles in length, extending into several counties, was completed by this class, under the direction of one of the teachers. The mathematician will sympathise with us when we state, that in the course of the survey, having an opportunity of

comparing our own operations with those of Colonel Mudge, we found the agreement such as to authorise a favourable opinion of our accuracy. In the third volume of the "Report of the Trigonometrical Survey of England and Wales" are given the distances of Wolverhampton and Wednesbury spires, from a station at Bar-Beacon; unfortunately, nothing has been left to mark the exact place of this station; but the Colonel informs us that it is "thirty yards north of the plantation." We interpreted this description in its most exact meaning; that is to say, that the station was directly north of the *centre* of the plantation, and thirty yards from the nearest part of the clump of trees. Assuming this to be the exact point of the station, the boys calculated, by a series of triangles, deduced from a measured base, that the distance of Wolverhampton spire from the station at Bar-Beacon, was forty-eight thousand three hundred and fifty-two feet; exceeding that given by Colonel Mudge by only seven feet in upwards of nine miles. The distance of Wednesbury spire from the same station, they found to be twenty-five thousand one hundred and forty-four feet; exceeding that which is given in the "Report of the Trigonometrical Survey" by only four feet in almost five miles. Even these differences, trifling as they are, may be accounted for, when we consider the very vague manner in which the site of the station is described.

The original base line, which is not more than a third of a mile in length, the boys measured by

means of long deal rods, which were rested upon stools, made to rise and fall so as to keep the same line throughout each hypotenuse. The mode of surveying it was not very different from that practised with such accuracy by General Roy on Hounslow Heath. As the base was measured in one of the streets of the neighbouring town, it was necessary to do it early in the morning, that the boys might not be hindered by spectators. The survey occupied three mornings, from three till seven o'clock. The experienced mathematician may smile at our choosing a street for this operation, but it was advantageously situated with respect to some of the public buildings of the town, beyond the limits of which we had at that time no intention of extending our survey.

We think it very desirable that in arithmetic, (a science so well adapted to exercise the reasoning powers) all technical forms and expressions should be avoided, until the detailed plans for which they are substituted are thoroughly understood; and that the pupil should not employ even ideal signs in his calculations, until he has applied his arithmetic to the objects which these signs are intended to represent. On this principle, a boy unacquainted with addition, should be exercised in *totalizing* different numbers of real objects, as marbles, &c. before he is required to find their amount, when the numbers and objects are merely expressed by figures and words. In a similar manner, reduction should be taught, by first supplying the pupil with a number of ounce and pound

weights, and a question being given him, he should solve it by collecting or exchanging the objects before him. For instance, if he were required to find what number of pounds equals fifty-three ounces, he should first count out that number of ounces, and then collect them, as far as he could, into heaps, each containing sixteen; or he may first collect them into heaps of four or eight ounces, and afterwards unite these heaps. If the question requires that he should reduce pounds into ounces, he should exchange each pound for the number of ounces, to which it is equivalent.

*Mental Arithmetic.*

Besides what has been already mentioned, the boys are daily exercised in mental arithmetic, for which a new arrangement into classes takes place, entirely independent of the pupils' progress in written arithmetic, or ciphering.

Here such questions only are proposed as can be calculated without the aid of signs; and the answers are either given orally, when the boy who is first able to solve the question speaks; or written upon slates, when each pupil is expected to perform the calculation mentally, and to write a correct answer.

The lower classes engaged in mental arithmetic are exercised in calculating questions respecting interest and discount, in determining whether a certain year is bissextile or not, and in miscellaneous ques-

tions respecting the value of articles of various numbers and prices. The school coinage furnishes matter for many problems, which are interesting to little boys ; and by proposing questions on the different fines, the amount of discount, which in certain cases would be allowed for immediate payment, &c. the teacher may exercise his class in calculation, improve their knowledge of the school regulations, and exemplify the advantages of observing those regulations, at one and the same time.

The upper classes are employed in exercises more scientific: they learn to determine the age of the moon at any given time, the day of the week which corresponds with any day of any month and year, and Easter Sunday for a given year. They will square any number not exceeding a thousand, extract the square and cube roots of large numbers, calculate the distance of places, (the time which sound takes to pass from one place to another being known,) determine the space through which a body falls in a given time, the circumferences and areas of circles from their diameters, and solve many other problems in mensuration ; besides which, they have practice in mental algebra, vulgar fractions, and in abstruse miscellaneous calculations.

The following questions, with their answers, are extracted from the minutes of the public Exhibitions, of which we shall speak hereafter. It can hardly be necessary to observe, that the rehearsals, which are so numerous with respect to the recita-

tions, have no place in this department. Moreover, the audience is always requested to propound any questions which may occur to their minds.

What is the value of 25,231 articles, at 16s. 8d. each?

Tell the discount on £864 6s. 8d. at 15 per cent.

What is the square of 952?

What is the square of  $54\frac{1}{2}$ ?

On what day will Easter Sunday fall in the year 1827?

A rectangular garden, of which the breadth is two-thirds of the length, contains in area  $661\frac{1}{2}$  square yards; what are the length and breadth respectively?

What was the time of high-water at London bridge on the 17th of September, 1820?

Gay Lusac rose in a balloon from Paris to the height of four miles and three furlongs. What was the distance of his horizon when looking towards the sea?

The height of the Lunar Mountain, observed by Riccioli, and called by that astronomer Mount St. Catharine, is (he tells us) nine miles. Supposing the moon to be inhabited, how far along the level surface are the lunarians able to see from the top of this eminence, the diameter of the moon being 2200 miles?

The diameter of the dome of the church of the Invalids at Paris is about 80 English feet, what is its circumference?

A. 251 feet and 3-7ths.

Call the circumference 251 feet, and suppose the dome to be a perfect hemisphere, what is the superficial content in square feet?

A. 10,040 square feet.

This dome is covered with gilt: what would be the expense of gilding it, at 8s. per square foot?

A. £4,016.

Give the double of 21 as high as you can.

This was carried as high as 352,321,536 (the 24th double).

At one of our public Exhibitions, a class of ten or twelve boys stood prepared to extract the cube



roots, (disregarding fractions,) of any numbers, whether exact cubes or surds, which did not exceed two thousand millions. Many gentlemen present were furnished with tables of cubes, and their roots; several questions were proposed, and answered, with a rapidity which astonished the audience. This class had received very frequent practice, with the view of trying whether boys of tolerably good talents could not be educated to rival or even to exceed the feats of this kind performed by the American youth, Zerah Colburn. The experiment was completely successful; but the practice has been since discontinued to make way for more important acquisitions, and we cannot at present boast of any such performances: we do not doubt, however, that the power might at any time be readily revived.

### *Mixed Arithmetic.*

Sometimes the boys are practised in what we call *mixed Arithmetic*. A class assembles, and every boy being provided with a slate and a pencil, a question is given out. The business now is to produce a correct answer in the shortest time, each pupil choosing his own methods. The plan generally adopted, is to work the problem mentally as far as the student finds such a proceeding most consistent with speed and certainty; availing himself of the slate only for the purpose of registering cer-

tain stages of the process, and not as a means of using the arithmetical machinery, except in extreme cases.

One great advantage of this exercise, results from its being a method frequently adopted in real life. Another, that it gradually weans the pupil from the excessive employment of the slate, and prepares him for the higher branches of mental arithmetic. It also enables the teacher to acquaint himself with the state of his pupils' progress in each department of the sciences; he sees whether they are more expert at the inductive processes, or in the mechanical operations, and shapes his future lessons accordingly.

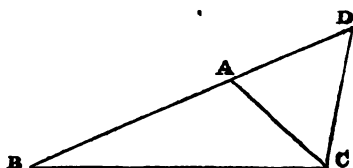
### *Geometry.*

We begin of course with practical geometry. The first exercise is to educate the eye by setting the pupils to guess at the lengths of lines, both straight and curved, which are afterwards measured. In familiarising the pupil with the definitions, constant use is made of diagrams, or what is better still, of the different geometrical figures, formed by the walls, floor, and ceiling of the rooms; and by the furniture. Pestalozzi's Elementary work on Geometry we find to be very useful.

The pupils work problems on slates or on paper, when their invention is exercised in discovering the means of solution, and in devising new problems.

The next step is Speculative Geometry, which is taught in the following manner.—The class to be instructed is not expected to have studied the demonstration previous to the commencement of the lesson, but merely to be able to repeat the proposition to be demonstrated. When this has been repeated, a figure, such as is described in the proposition, is chalked on a board placed before the class. A member of the class then applies to this particular figure the general proposition, stating what is required to be proved. The boys in the class now endeavour to discover a demonstration; if any one propose an erroneous demonstration, its fallacy is pointed out either by a member of the class, or by the teacher. When the demonstration proposed is correct, the boy who discovered it, explains its principles, and it is then given at length by the class. But if, as is generally the case, the complete demonstration is not discovered without assistance, the teacher directs the attention of the class to an intermediate step, by asking what must be proved before the whole proposition can be demonstrated. If the class cannot answer this question, he himself points out something, which if proved, would enable them to attain their object. If the class be unable to overcome the present obstacle, the teacher gives further assistance; and so he goes on diminishing the difficulty until the class can master it; when they gradually retrace their steps.

We will give an example: suppose the proposition to be the twentieth of Euclid's first book, viz. "Any two sides of a triangle are together greater than the third side."



A member of the class constructs a triangle, and marks it  $A B C$ . Then another begins: "We are required to prove that any two sides of this triangle are together greater than the third side; as for instance, that  $A B$  and  $A C$  are together greater than  $B C$ ." If no one can do this, the teacher directs the class to produce  $B A$ , and to make the production  $A D$ , equal to  $A C$ . If, when this is done, the class cannot proceed, he continues, "Join  $D C$ ." If the pupils are still unable to discover the demonstration, the teacher directs their attention to the circumstance of  $A B$  and  $A C$  being together equal to  $B D$ , and enquires if  $B D$  can be proved to be greater than  $B C$ . Most probably the class will perceive that this may be done by demonstrating that the angle  $B C D$ , is greater than the angle at  $D$ . After such proof has been given, the class will readily retrace its steps, and show, that because the angle  $B C D$  is greater than the angle at  $D$ , the side  $B D$  is greater than  $B C$ , and consequently that

**B A and C A, which are together equal to B D, must also be greater than B C.**

When the demonstration is finished, the whole is repeated ; and the propositions, definitions, axioms, and postulates employed, are all quoted.

### *Latin and Greek.*

IT is scarcely necessary to state, that in these divisions of study we have, in common with other schools, our daily lessons. In preparing them, the inferior pupils are allowed the assistance of translations, which they of course lay aside when they come to say their task. The superior scholars have only the occasional aid of their teacher ; but all are expected to acquire so perfect a knowledge of the passage to be translated, as to be able to construe it without the slightest error. If the pupil perform the lesson correctly, he receives a stated reward, regulated by the rank of the class to which he belongs, and the length of the task ; if, on the contrary, a single mistake be made, the pupil has to pay a heavy fine. The repetition of these lessons commences at seven o'clock in the morning, and is generally concluded in forty minutes. As not more than four teachers are engaged, this time would be wholly insufficient for the accomplishment of the business allotted to it, were not the pupils so completely in possession of their tasks as to proceed without hesi-

tation. On each Monday morning the same time is employed by pupils of some proficiency in repeating sections of the grammar. In allotting to the classes their several portions of labour, the point aimed at is, that the quantity should be such as to require the private study of each pupil for one hour. Deductions, are, however, made on account of extreme youth, ill state of health, &c. At the same time, inducements are held out to each class, voluntarily to extend its task, which is frequently done ; sometimes even a double lesson will be prepared.

Besides the performance of these prepared lessons, a considerable portion of the day is devoted by the inferior classes to analytical construing, and by boys of all ranks, to extemporaneous construing.

For analytical construing the pupils are furnished each with a dictionary, a grammar, and a copy of Dr. Valpy's *Delectus*, or some similar work.\*

The business commences by one of the pupils reading the sentence to be construed: if more than one offer to read the sentence, or to perform any other part of the exercise, the preference is given to that candidate who stands lowest in the class; the personal verb of the sentence is next ascertained; if there be more than one, they are all named; the theme and signification are then dis-

\* Dr. Valpy's *Delectus*, (a valuable work) not having been written for this purpose, does not quite meet our wishes; we are, therefore, compiling one of our own, which will probably be published in a few months.

covered by means of the grammar and dictionary. This operation is repeated upon the other words of the sentence, according to the order in which they occur in the original; immediately after a preposition, however, the noun which it governs is taken: the pupils then attempt to repeat the signification of the words without recurring to the grammar and dictionary. If this attempt fail, recourse to these auxiliaries having been made as occasion may require, it is repeated until successful; the sentence is next construed, and if in performing this task the class require any assistance from the master, the operation is repeated until his aid is no longer necessary.

Perhaps the exercise may be best illustrated by example; we will suppose the class to commence with the sentence, "*Jacent sub arbore poma.*" The passage having been read, a pupil names "*Jacent*" as the verb; after which the boys, each speaking as often as he is able, but always waiting for the master's approbation or disapprobation of that which was last said, thus proceed:—" *Jacent* like *monent*—*Monent* from *moneo*—*Jacent* from *jaceo*.—*Jaceo* must be a verb of the second conjugation.—*Jaceo*, to lie—*Monent*, they advise—*Jacent*, they lie—*Sub*, under—*Sub* is a preposition.—Examine what case it governs.—It governs the accusative or ablative.—Find an accusative or ablative.—*Arbore* is an ablative—*Arbore* like *parente*—*Parente* from *parentis*\*

\* As no grammar contains models for the numerous modes in which nouns of the third declension form their genitives, it is obviously

—*Arbore* from *arboris*.—*Arboris* must come from a substantive of the third declension. — Consult the dictionary. — *Arboris* from *arbos* — *Arbos*, a tree — *Sub arbore*, under a tree—*Poma* like *regna*—*Regna* from *regnum*—*Poma* from *pomum*.—*Pomum* must be a substantive of the second declension.—*Pomum*, an apple—*Regna*, kingdoms—*Poma*, apples.” The class now repeats—“*Jacent*, they lie—*Sub arbore*, under the tree—*Poma*, apples.” Having accomplished this without any assistance, it proceeds to construe, “*Poma*, the apples—*Jacent*, lie—*Sub arbore*, under the tree.

It is obvious, that, in performing this exercise, *Jacent* might have been compared to *regent* or *ament*—*Arbore* to *facie*, *felice*, &c.—*Poma* to *musa*, *opera*, &c. This would have occasioned some variation in the method of proceeding. Thus, if a pupil had compared *Jacent* to *ament*, the class would have continued as follows:—“*Ament* from *amo*—*Jacent* from *jaco*. *Jaco* must be a verb of the first conjugation. —No such word in the dictionary. — Therefore *Jacent* is not like *ament*.”

We have given the name of extemporaneous construing to an exercise which has for its object to put the pupil in possession of his author's meaning, by the most rapid process. Here, as before, each boy

expedient, that the young student should trace the inflexions of such nouns to their genitives, before he attempts to discover their themes: in the same manner, it is proper to trace certain inflexions of verbs first to the preterite.



is provided with a separate copy of the work, which is the subject of his attention, and the class proceeds without previous study to render a passage into English. Each boy grapples with as much as he thinks himself able to master at once ; and if successful, is rewarded by receiving a number of class counters, commensurate with the length of his task : if unsuccessful, he forfeits a number, as a tax on his presumption. When any assistance has been given by the teacher, the sentence under construction is rendered again and again, until perfect accuracy is obtained. As the business of this exercise is not to call the pupil's attention to the grammar of the language, the teacher simply renders the word or phrase, of which the class is ignorant, into English, without at all entering into grammatical disquisition. Thus the interest of the pupil in the subject matter of the work is not broken by philological discussions, which are reserved for the lessons in parsing, and in analytical construing. There is, however, a wide field open for the exertions of the teacher : it is in this lesson that he is expected to give his pupils all such information as will best illustrate their author. He takes care to provide the requisite maps and plans ; he permits no allusion to ancient habits, manners, laws, or history, to pass unexplained ; in short, he considers it his duty to put his class thoroughly in possession of their subject. As might be expected, we have found that the clear views which the boys gain by this exer-

cise, give them a deep interest in their author, and produce a great effect in preserving him safely in their memory.

Scanning is taught by a process which bears considerable resemblance to that which we have been describing. Each member of a junior class being furnished with a copy of the passage to be scanned, and a few general observations on prosody having been made by the teacher, some one commences, by attempting to scan a single hexameter: should he fail, such questions are put to the class by the teacher, as may best serve to point out wherein consists the error which has been committed, and the members of the class are requested to repeat the rules which have been violated; if no one offers to do this, the pupils are directed to consult their grammars, and he who first succeeds in discovering the rules reads them aloud. After this, some one again attempts to scan the verse which is before the class; if he fail, the process described is repeated, and thus the class proceeds until the verse has been scanned without a mistake.

This process is repeated with pentameters; after which different kinds of verse are shewn to the pupils, and they are practised in dividing the various metres into their feet, by observing the quantities of the syllables. These exercises are performed without any preparatory study. The teacher removes the difficulties as they arise, and furnishes the class from time to time with general rules and information on the subject of prosody.

In teaching the writing of Latin and Greek, we make great use of the process of double translations, as practised by Roger Ascham in the education of Queen Elizabeth. We have found the plan equally applicable to verse as to prose ; these translations are sometimes made orally.

Under the head Exhibitions, our readers will find an account of the method pursued by our pupils in committing to memory selections from the different authors, where it will be observed, that we pay considerable attention to this important part of classical education.

A class of boys, whose rank and character entitle them to confidence, and whose acquirements enable them to dispense with much assistance, are allowed time for the private study of some classic : their business is to translate mentally, reserving such passages as they find beyond their skill to construe, for discussion with a teacher.

### *French.*

FRENCH is taught to all boys who are in the five highest reading classes. The method is now as follows : each member of a junior class being supplied with a copy of some easy French work, Perrin's Fables for instance, the teacher reads aloud the first word or phrase at his discretion, which is instantly repeated by the class ; all the members reading at

once, and keeping time. After a little practice, the teacher learns to distinguish each voice, and ascertains without difficulty, any error in pronunciation, which of course is immediately corrected. The word or phrase is then translated, as in the Latin classes.

It has been found that in the higher classes the boys may be safely intrusted to read the original without translating it. They, therefore, follow the teacher, still speaking in concert, until a member makes a sign that a word or phrase is unintelligible to him; when his difficulty is removed, usually by one of his companions, and the class proceeds as before. By omitting the translation, not only much time is saved, but the learner becomes interested in the story.

At stated periods a passage from what has been lately read is given out for translation into English. The plan of double translations is also adopted in teaching French; and, as in Latin and Greek, sometimes *vivâ voce*, sometimes in writing. Inducements are offered for careful translations into French as private and voluntary exercises, and we find their number considerably on the increase.

We have many foreigners in the school, from various countries; and French being in a great degree their only common language, our English pupils are thus furnished with additional motive and opportunity for cultivating its use. We have some

boys who speak this language with considerable fluency, and many who could avail themselves of for all necessary purposes.

Of late, a little Vocabulary, from our own press, has enabled all the boys, from the highest to the lowest, to carry on the responses of the dinner-table in French. As these, of necessity, are in rather a loud voice, each boy, to escape some share of ridicule, is obliged to be attentive both to his language and pronunciation.

The acquirement of the pronunciation and idiom of the language is greatly facilitated by the attention which is paid to the study of the French drama: a full description of the mode in which this is taught may be found in the section on Exhibitions. This instruction is received from one of our teachers, who is a native of France.

Many boys are induced, by a weekly stipend of marks, to engage to speak in French every time they have occasion to address this and some other teachers, who are careful, if the pronunciation of what is said to them should be incorrect, to have it repeated until it be perfect. A forfeit is paid for every violation of the contract.

We do not in any way encourage our English pupils to make use of the French language in common conversation with each other; knowing that without superintendence it would be idle to expect that careful attention so necessary to prevent them

from falling into bad habits, both with respect to pronunciation and idiom. We have often been astonished that any teachers should expect favourable results from a plan so vicious. They seem to suppose, that if the pupil does not speak English, he must of necessity "*talk*" French. The truth is, he speaks neither language, but a miserable jargon compounded of both—the words French, the idiom and pronunciation English. Like the youth in the Dunciad, he

"Spoils his own language, and acquires no more."

For the purpose of attaining the niceties of the French tongue, many of the elder boys are taken by the French master through a course of grammatical instruction.

### *Gymnastics.*

ONE hour in each day is devoted to the performance of regular gymnastic exercises. The exercises taught are various; namely, running, leaping with and without the pole; vaulting, wrestling, balancing the body while walking along horizontal poles, performing a variety of feats upon the rack, (a round horizontal bar about 6 feet from the ground,) throwing a blunt kind of spear at a target, and in the summer time swimming, for which we have a pri-

vate bath in a retired spot, at a short distance from the play-ground.

For these purposes we have an extensive apparatus, which has been furnished partly from the school fund, and partly from a fund raised among the boys by voluntary contributions; the few who are non-subscribers not being allowed to use the apparatus belonging to the society. The subscription is two-pence per month only, with a donation of one shilling at admission. This fund is placed at the disposal of a committee elected every two months, at a general meeting of the subscribers; at which meeting the old committee presents a report of its proceedings. Although the subscription is so small, it has enabled the boys to furnish themselves with an abundance of playthings, besides assisting in the purchase of the apparatus already described.

A few of the above-mentioned gymnastic exercises, which are attended with some little danger, as throwing the spear and swimming, are only permitted at the hour for Gymnastics, when each class has its teacher; but most of the exercises are practised by some or other of the boys at almost every hour of the day; they also employ much of their leisure time in athletic games.

Five small prizes are awarded by the committee at the end of each session, to those boys who have excelled most in certain gymnastic exercises, which are proposed weekly; the competition being alto-

gether voluntary. In order to give the younger boys a chance of obtaining a prize, the competitors are divided into two classes, according to their age. Three prizes are awarded to the best of the senior class, and two to those of the junior division. A member of the latter class is not excluded, however, from competition with the former.

We have derived many advantages from these gymnastic exercises. In strengthening and forming the body, their use is universally allowed ; and there cannot be a doubt that they produce an effect almost as advantageous on the mind. Many valuable hints on the best means of developing the various powers of the human frame will be found in Part III. of Dr. Carpenter's excellent work, entitled " Principles of Education, intellectual, moral, and physical."

### *Boy Teachers.*

WE frequently employ boy teachers, which, as exercising their discretion, is most useful to them ; but when this is done, the classes are made very small, and an adult teacher superintends to prevent the imperfect judgment and incomplete authority of the boy from disturbing the machinery of the school. Frequently we adopt the method introduced by Dr. Bell, of dividing a class, after it has received a lesson from an adult, into halves ; each boy in the upper party acting as teacher to some one from the



lower half. The lesson is then repeated under the superintendence of the adult teacher. This we find to be an advantageous mode of proceeding.

### *Self Direction.*

MANY boys are exempted from a part of the usual routine of lessons, and left very much to their own guidance. One great advantage of this liberty is, that it enables those whose habits and dispositions are in proper training, (and, of course, no others are so intrusted,) to apply themselves more exclusively to studies bearing on their future pursuits in life, than they can do while they are part of the great machine.

These are the only boys whom we have been able to employ very advantageously in the business of original composition. Their favourite subjects are little essays on various parts of our system, sometimes defending, and sometimes attacking them. It always appeared to us to be a great advantage to employ the student in composition on subjects with the facts of which he must be practically acquainted, and where his own interests are involved ; and experience has by no means lessened our faith in this principle. When a boy is really anxious to improve, it frequently happens that he can make a greater progress by himself than in a class ; provided there is some one to whom he can apply in cases of dif-

ficulty. We often find that even young boys will carefully consider what are the pursuits most likely to forward them in after-life, and follow these in preference to others less laborious.

Dec. 1824.—W. W—, and J. H—, each 13 years old, requested to be allowed to assist in making up the accounts for the school bills; on the ground that they thought it would be a useful exercise to them, as they expected hereafter to be engaged in commerce: they stated their willingness to attend at all hours—Permission was granted. They were exceedingly useful, and worked about thirteen hours per day, for more than a week together.

### *Examination of Classes.*

ALL the classes are examined periodically by some of the superior teachers. In most pursuits the classes are examined every week; in some less important, every fortnight. The teacher of the class is present at the examination; so that he is quite as anxious as his pupils that a satisfactory improvement should be evinced. Previous to the examination, the ordinary teacher notes in a register the progress which he conceives the class to have made since it was last examined. At the close of the investigation, the examining teacher makes his remarks in a parallel column, and all such entries are submitted to the conference at its next meeting.

The writing, drawing, and all exercises which can be exhibited, are also examined at the end of the week, by a superior teacher; and the pupil is rewarded or fined according to the quality of his work. This teacher is empowered, subject to an appeal to the committee, to detain on the holiday afternoon (Saturday) any boy whose penmanship evinces carelessness, until he shall have written a given quantity exceedingly well.

### *Exhibitions.*

IN Chapter IV. we have given at some length our reasons for engaging our pupils very frequently in committing to memory large portions of the best authors in the languages which they are studying. It will be seen also, that we prefer compositions in the dramatic form, although we by no means confine ourselves within so limited a range, especially in Latin and Greek.

Three evenings in each half year are given to reciting passages from the orators and poets, and representing dramatic pieces and dialogues. These performances are called the minor exhibitions.

On the morning succeeding each performance, every boy is informed what part he is to take the next time, and a day is appointed by which it must be committed to memory. The first step is to ascertain that the pupil is in full possession of his author's

meaning. This once done, he is expected at any moment during his numerous rehearsals to give the exact translation of whatever passage his teacher may call for ; every default being the subject of a fine.

Having thus taken care that the pupil shall understand that which he is about to learn, we practise him, before he commits it to memory, in reading his part until he is perfect, not only in the pronunciation and quantities of the words, but also until he can *read it well*, in every acceptation of the phrase.

Upon the day appointed, every boy repeats his part from memory ; and if he have volunteered to learn it in the hours allowed for recreation, he is rewarded according to his merit, regard being had to the length of his task as well as to his success in accomplishing it. At the next repetition, as the pupil is expected to be quite perfect, a fine is exacted for every mistake. The words being now firmly fixed in his memory, he rehearses with spirit, and his mind is sufficiently at liberty to attend to lessons in gesture.

As the house which we occupy was built long since we began to act on our present system, we have every convenience for theatrical representation. By the arrangement of the rooms we can construct a theatre of ample size for all our purposes. One of the teachers, assisted by some of the boys, paints the scenes for us. We have dresses too, and our *pro-*

*perty-man* has not quite a sinecure. Our orchestra, which is filled by the school band, is by no means deficient in strength, whatever defects the fastidious may discover in its harmony. The performance of the exhibitions is varied by the occasional introduction of English pieces : a share in these is an object of no slight ambition, and is generally given as a reward for assiduity in more difficult exercises. It may be observed that we have no want of candidates for the long parts, when even the whole of a play is performed (as in the Latin and French languages it sometimes is,) notwithstanding the severe exertion necessary to commit them to memory in the very perfect manner which we require.

Once a year the friends of the pupils are invited. At this time the exercises principally consist of selections from the minor exhibitions ; and thus an additional motive is given to excellence in the discharge of the regular duties of the school. A part of the evening is taken up in examining the boys on their scientific acquirements, particularly on their knowledge of the mathematics. Sometimes a class presents itself, prepared to demonstrate any proposition in Euclid's Elements within a certain scope. Sometimes trigonometrical operations are performed, and then verified by admeasurement. Boys are exercised in mental arithmetic, their friends being invited to propose questions. Some of these questions have been already given under the head Mental Arithmetic.

We have heard it objected to our exhibitions, that they must necessarily give a taste for the stage. We certainly have found no such ill effects from them, nor, after considering the subject attentively, do we ever expect any change in our experience.

In the first place, distinction, according to our plan, is the price of severe labour, and of course can only be gained by industrious boys; but industry, where so much is left to the voluntary exertion of the pupil, must be the result of well-ordered habits and considerable self-command. Are these likely to lead a youth of fair prospects in life upon the stage? Again, no one in his senses will embark in a profession where the prizes are so few and the blanks so many, unless he firmly believes himself capable of rivalling the very small number whose lot even *seems* enviable. But this expectation, it will be replied, every stage-struck blockhead has in its highest pitch. True; but would he have been so mistaken in his calculations of probabilities, if his taste had been sufficiently cultivated, to enable him to form a just appreciation of the excellence which he thinks it so easy to equal or even to surpass? Without study and reflection, he is quite ignorant of what that excellence is: not only cannot he feel its degree, but he knows nothing about the matter. He is guided in his opinions by fashion; and has no fixed principles of judgment by which he can try those merits which he fondly hopes to excel. The consequence is, that he never sees the infinite distance between

himself and his models. It is a very common mistake with the ignorant to suppose that powers which they see exercised with facility have been acquired with ease. We believe the story to be true, that a man being asked if he could play on the violin, answered, "he could not tell, for he had never tried." A few lessons on the gamut would have wonderfully cleared his notions of music. We therefore hope that the knowledge our pupils gain of the difficulties and the labour of the theatrical profession, compared with either its reputation in life or its emoluments, will be a safeguard against all its temptations.

*Rank:*

ALL our arrangements tend to make rank in the school an object of great importance to the boys, and to confer it in proportion to moral and mental excellence.

Of the rank which a boy obtains by careful observance of the laws, we have already spoken. We are now about to describe another kind of rank, which, though still dependent in some degree on moral qualities, is principally to be obtained by assiduously performing the different school exercises, and by a consequent elevation in the classes.

The various arrangements of the school into classes for different departments of study, determine each for a time, the relative rank of every pupil. Thus, for one week, the rank of each boy depends upon his progress in Greek, as far down the school as that language is taught. Those who do not learn Greek, follow according to their proficiency in some other study. Latin determines the order for another week, geometry for a third, and so forth.

Most of the studies determine the arrangement for a single week each ; but a few, which are very important, decide it for two distinct weeks in each half-year.

At a time appointed, the classes for that department of study which is to determine the rank for the



following week, are assembled, each under the care of a teacher, and a new arrangement is made, according to the proficiency of the boys at that period, by a process as nearly mechanical, as, perhaps, the nature of the business will admit. It is as follows :

A certain time is allowed the classes for practice and for internal arrangement, by the process described at page 100. Then, at a signal given on the drum, the three highest members of each inferior class join that immediately above, taking their places at the bottom. The classes again proceed with internal arrangement for a certain time, when at a second signal on the drum, the three boys then lowest, descend from each of the superior classes, to the head of the next lower : this last procedure is repeated at the end of a third interval of time. At the end of a fourth, the first of these changes is repeated ; and at the end of a fifth again repeated. After this, without further change from class to class, a certain time is allowed to complete the internal arrangement. A signal is then given on the drum, when the exercises immediately cease, and a list is made of each class, in the order in which the members then stand. By these means, every boy finds his proper level ; some ascending, while others descend ; and thus, in about fifty minutes, the whole is well arranged. The different lists are now collected into one general list, which determines the precedence for the following week.

Sometimes the teachers are obliged, from the cir-

cumstances of the case, to adopt a more arbitrary mode of proceeding. Thus, in arranging the boys according to propriety of manners and general good conduct, which is done twice in the course of each half-year, they determine the rank of every boy to the best of their discretion. In doing this, however, they are materially assisted by the various records which are preserved of the good and bad conduct of the scholars. On the day previous to an arrangement of this description, all such records are posted into a ledger, where each boy has a debtor and creditor account, which every one has an opportunity of inspecting, that he may satisfy himself as to its correctness. We do not pretend to assess every merit and demerit, and to strike a balance ; but we are materially assisted by having all exposed at once to view : still we depend principally on the general impression of the conduct of our pupils, which from our intimate acquaintance with them, is never very incorrect. An arrangement of this kind is always made in the evening, and every teacher assists. Each boy's name is written on a card. These cards are first placed according to the previous arrangement of the kind which is considered as the ground-work of the present. The names on the two highest cards are then compared, the ledger is consulted, and when the teachers are agreed as to the superiority, that which is put lowest is compared with the next, and so on, each being carefully weighed against its neighbours, whe-

ther above or below, till all have found their proper level. Those who have entered the school since the last arrangement are now interpolated. The whole process generally occupies five or six hours. The judge and magistrate are generally put at the head of the list ; and when their places are assigned, they are invited to assist in arranging the others. On the following day the business is to lay the general and particular grounds of the arrangement before the boys; an office which is undertaken by one or two of the superior teachers. The eight boys at the head of the list are first called into a private room, where the entries in the ledger are read ; and if there should be any little cause of complaint, it is mentioned with kindness. The arrangement, as regards these eight, is now made known, and opportunity is given to any one to state objections to it. These would be canvassed; and if they appeared just, the list would be altered ; but we do not recollect a single instance of such objection. When this part of the business is concluded, all return to the principal school-room, round which the pupils are seated. The general grounds of arrangement are first publicly enumerated, after which the particular entries in the ledger are read and commented upon ; when opportunity occurs of speaking with praise (and scarcely any one has a blank on the creditor side) it is gladly seized ; and a boy's failings are never unnecessarily dwelt upon, or treated with harshness. The whole of these com-

ments, which are always listened to with great attention, occupy generally two or three hours. The entire arrangement is now made known, and the pupils place themselves according to it. Great anxiety is evinced during its publication, as a stranger might readily perceive by the boys' countenances. Opportunity is now given for objections to the arrangement: some such objections are always made, and when any are allowed, which is frequently the case, the list is altered accordingly. We have dwelt thus long on the subject under consideration, from the conviction that it is a most important part of the system. The intense anxiety manifested by many boys, clearly shows that their situation in this arrangement is any thing but a matter of indifference. The materials collected for these purposes are of great use in drawing up the reports on the characters of the boys at leaving the school. A certain number at the head of the list arranged by conduct, enjoy peculiar privileges.

The weekly arrangement determines, for the time, the precedence of the boys under certain circumstances; as, for instance, when presenting their exercises to a teacher for examination, superiority in rank gives them a prior claim to his attention; and by a comparison of the rank of each with his place on a list arranged according to seniority, a certain number whose rank in merit surpasses that in seniority in the greatest degree, are selected from the others, and rewarded according to the amount of disparity.

These rewards of course are generally claimed by little boys. There are other motives which render this rank desirable, but it is not necessary to enumerate all.

Here it may be noticed, that, contrary perhaps to what would be expected, the boys who excel in one pursuit are never very low in another. The number of boys who are in the highest class in every department of study is by no means inconsiderable. The same individuals who are found at the head of the Greek and Latin classes are also among the first in the mathematical and French classes; and what is more remarkable, in such exercises as penmanship and scale-drawing, arts in which, from the necessity of devoting their time to more important pursuits, they have scarcely any direct instruction, the boys of talent and information, actuated by the wish to maintain at all times a respectable rank in the school, find means to qualify themselves for competition with those who give much time to studies of this description, but who are little acquainted with the higher branches of education.

The weekly account of rank is carried into an aggregate account, comprehending all the weekly arrangements which at any time have taken place from the commencement of the session. It is determined thus:—If A holds the thirtieth place for the first week, and the fortieth place for the second, his aggregate rank for the fortnight is expressed by a *debit* of thirty and forty; that is, of seventy points; and

is higher than that of B, who should hold the twentieth place for the first week, but the sixtieth for the second ; as his aggregate rank would be expressed by eighty points. If, however, in the third week, A should stand at number fifty, while B is as high as number thirty, then A's aggregate rank being expressed by one hundred and twenty points, would be lower than B's, for which the expression would be one hundred and ten points only.

There are some exercises, which, although they do not affect the weekly arrangements of the school, yet influence the aggregate rank. Of this description are translations from the Latin and Greek into English verse and prose, and from English into Latin and Greek ; original composition ; reports of lectures ; and mathematical demonstrations. Each of these in turn is the subject of a voluntary exercise, and the effort of each candidate is valued according to its merits, at a certain number of points, which is *deducted* from the aggregate total. Thus, if in the third week A should be entitled to twenty points for a voluntary exercise, while B had no such claim, A's total would be reduced from one hundred and twenty to one hundred points ; while B's remaining at one hundred and ten, A would hold a higher aggregate rank than B.

The subjects of these exercises are published weekly, according to a fixed plan ; but if a boy should in his leisure hours perform any spontaneous exercise of considerable merit, he may, upon appli-

cation to the committee, obtain a proportionate allowance of points, which are carried to his advantage in the account of aggregate rank. Such exercises are not unfrequently presented. Some time ago, a boy obtained fifty points for a copper-plate etching, which was considered as having employed more than a hundred hours of his leisure time.

In order that every boy may know exactly the effect of any new arrangement of the school upon his aggregate rank, it is ascertained and published, and the boys are made to stand in the order of such rank on a certain day in each week.

Many motives are in operation to induce a boy to obtain a high aggregate rank. The most powerful of all is, perhaps, the wish to stand well in the estimation of his teachers and companions. He has the advantages of elevation in the different weekly arrangements. With a few exceptions, the boys sit according to their aggregate rank, while at meals; and we have shown that the higher a boy ranks, the more influence he acquires in the election of the committee, and consequently the greater is his controul in the affairs of the school. On a certain afternoon in each week, the ten highest are allowed a free choice of employment. Certain boys at the head of the list are exempted from one half of the subsidies; and at the end of the session five prizes are awarded in the order of their value to those boys whose aggregate rank is then highest. At this

time, also, every parent is supplied with a statement of the rank his son has held in the different competitions; the statement comprising the place the boy occupies in the order of age, that his friends may the better perceive the degree in which he has distinguished himself.

A class of boys, called, *par eminence*, the students, is formed of such as were distinguished by obtaining prizes at the last distribution of them, including the judge and the magistrate, whether otherwise entitled to be members or not. These boys invariably sit at the head of the table; the judge ranking first, then the magistrate, and afterwards the others, in the order of the prizes which they last gained. The students enjoy many privileges; they are excused from serving certain laborious offices, as that of monitor; they are not under the regular discipline for the preservation of silence to which the others are subjected; and a room is appropriated to their use in an evening to which each student may admit a friend.

As the little boys are prevented from engaging in the voluntarily exercises, already described by their difficulty, other exercises, comparatively easy, are proposed, for which, according to their relative superiority, rewards of transferable marks are given in addition to the payment which the pupil may claim for them as so much voluntary labour.

These exercises are various. One is to give



a verbal abridgement of some well-known story ; or a description of an animal, as a horse ; or of a machine, as a plough. Another variation is to do the same in writing. Easy arithmetical and geometrical problems are given out for solution, and many other exercises are performed, which it would be tedious to enumerate.

*Proceedings of a Day*

IN order to give a more minute insight into the arrangements of the School, we shall relate, at some length, the proceedings of a day. It is not very important which day we take, as, with a few modifications, the general proceedings of all are alike. On Monday some duties are attended to which occur only once in the week, and as they slightly derange the usual routine of exercises, we shall take Tuesday. Before proceeding further, however, we must premise that almost every day in the session has certain trifling duties which are peculiar to it; as for instance, publishing the subject of the voluntary exercises, arranging them, &c. Care is taken that these duties shall not be forgotten, by having them all inscribed on a large placard, called the Almanack, which is constructed for each session. This table contains all occasional duties, all holidays, and every event of irregular occurrence. On each Saturday evening, a boy copies with chalk on a large black board as much of the Almanack as refers to the approaching week. This board is hung in a conspicuous place, and can be read from almost any part of the school-room. The monitor's list of duties, which is also hung in the school-room, may be considered as a daily Almanack; and by means of these two tables a boy might readily ascertain what

would be his probable employment at any future moment of the session. Most of the pupils, however, have all the daily and weekly duties, and many of those of less frequent occurrence, indelibly fixed in their memories.

At \*six o'clock the bell rings for the boys in general to rise.

At the three general musters, at those for meals, and at the one for evening prayers, the bell rings two minutes, at other times a few strokes only are sufficient.

Just before the six o'clock bell rings, a member of the band, having received notice from the monitor, goes into the passages which lead to the dormitories, and plays a *reveillée* on the Kent bugle, to arouse those who are not already awake.

All the boys leave their beds at the word of command, which is given as the bell rings; and when dressed, arrange themselves in each room in a certain order for marching down stairs.

Here it may be well to observe, that in each dormitory there is a teacher, and likewise a superior boy who is called the prefect, with other officers under him, each having the care of a division. The boys who serve the offices of prefect and sub-prefect, have salaries of marks, and are considered as responsible for the behaviour of those who are under their care. If any improper conduct should take place in either of the dormitories, it is the duty of the sub-prefect of the division in which the irregularity may have arisen, to report it to the magistrate at the muster for prayers. If this is not done, the officers themselves are fined, upon the report of the prefect.

At 6<sup>h</sup>. 10<sup>m</sup>. the bell again rings, when it is expect-

\* In December and January the boys rise at seven, and in November and February at half-past six. The other morning bells are, during these months, rung later accordingly.

ed that the boys in each room shall stand prepared to march down stairs.

If this is not the case, the last in each dormitory who takes his place, is reported by the sub-prefect and pays a fine. The boys being arranged, each division under the care of a sub-prefect, and all in the same dormitory, under the command of their prefect, the word "march" is given, and the different companies follow each other down stairs in regular order, accompanied by music. Having reached the principal school-room, they form in the order of march, in ten ranks along the parallel lines before-mentioned. As the boys when at a muster always place themselves along these lines, it will be unnecessary to speak of them again. The shoes are now distributed from baskets, one belonging to each division; having been collected the night before in the same baskets and placed in readiness.

At 6<sup>h</sup>. 15<sup>m</sup>. one division of the boys goes to the wash-houses.

At 6<sup>h</sup>. 20<sup>m</sup>. a second division goes to the wash-houses, and at 6<sup>h</sup>. 25<sup>m</sup>. a third division.

The arrangement of these three divisions which include all the boarders, depends partly on rank, and partly on age. There are two wash-houses with a supply of water, carried by pipes into every part. The little boys go to the inner apartment, and are washed by servants. Each boy receives a slice of bread as soon as he has left the wash-house.

At 6<sup>h</sup>. 35<sup>m</sup>. Prayers.

The business of the muster is gone through in the manner described at p. 82; with this exception; that as the day-boys are not present, their ranks are altogether omitted in the account, and a total made up which includes the boarders only. This is invariably the case at all musters which the day-boys do not join. When the business of the muster has been gone through, the reports of the sub-prefects are made: Prayers are then read.

In the selection of these, great care is taken that they shall contain those expressions of devotion only, in which every denomination of Christians may join with perfect sincerity. At the conclusion of prayers, the boys are at liberty.

At 6<sup>h</sup>. 45<sup>m</sup>., the monitor goes round to call any who may be in bed on account of slight indisposition or other causes.

At 6<sup>h</sup>. 55<sup>m</sup>. a rally on the drum.

This is to give notice of the general muster to all officers or others who may have preparations to make. Such a signal precedes all general musters and all changes of classes, at an equal interval.

At seven o'clock, a general muster, as has been described.

Immediately after, the boys form into the reading or into the parsing classes ; which alternate every fortnight. In either case, certain boys are drawn off for Latin, and others for French. It is also necessary to remark that the boys in the lower school (ten or twelve in number) do not join these classes, but at all times retire to their own room immediately after the general musters. Here they have a peculiar set of exercises, varying more frequently than those for the other boys. The lowest class of readers consists entirely of foreigners ; who, whenever they read, are taught individually, each being placed under a member of a superior class.

At 7<sup>h</sup>. 30<sup>m</sup>. the reading or parsing is discontinued.

The books are collected, and the classes disperse to prepare for Latin. Five minutes before this time, at the signal on the drum, the three highest boys in each class receive small rewards and are allowed to depart. In one or two of the highest classes, however, where a motive of this kind is not required to excite ardour, it is usual for all the members to remain to the last moment. It must be understood that this mode of proceeding is invariably adopted with respect to the classes throughout the day.

After ringing the bell, the monitor waits a minute: then strikes upon the drum, and the door is closed at the end of twenty seconds, as at the general musters. He then strikes twenty-five blows, each at an interval of a second, during which time, all in the school are expected to join their Latin classes at the parallel lines: if any are too late, the last is fined. At the head of each class hangs a list of the members, which is examined if any doubts arise as to a boy's place. The order to "march" is given, and the classes proceed to their places, stepping in measured time, but without music: the band playing only at certain musters, which will be mentioned. If any boys are excluded by the closing of the door, they are fined by an individual who remains out for the purpose, and are then sent directly to the places where their classes are exercised. The mode of proceeding here detailed is adopted at all changes of classes.

The Latin classes now go through certain lessons which they have prepared the night before. A few boys who do not learn Latin are engaged throughout the remainder of the morning, some in writing exercises under the French master, and others in transcribing from printed books. The foreigners make a distinct division, and receive lessons in English. Sometimes they learn little English dramas.

At 8<sup>h</sup>. 5<sup>m</sup>. the classes form for extemporaneous construing, and for instruction in the grammar; some in Greek, and others in Latin.

At 8 . 50<sup>m</sup>. the lessons conclude.

Some of the younger boys, and others who have not acquired a character for neatness, now go into a room, where they are individually examined as to personal appearance. In the meantime, the great majority, to whom such an inspection is unnecessary, form into ranks, in which they arrange themselves alphabetically: that is, all whose surnames begin with certain letters, stand in a given rank, and so on. A boy having previously assorted according to the same arrangement of the owner's names, all articles which have been found out of place the day before, and have not been claimed; these articles are now distributed, and a small fine is demanded for each by the

class-Prefects. Those articles which have no names inscribed upon them are put into the *Trovery*; a book-case, with doors of open wire-work, through which every thing it contains may be seen. During this distribution, an officer reads the list of recorded fines for the previous day, which have been posted the evening before by certain boys; these fines must now be paid. Some teachers are engaged in distributing rewards to those who bring voluntary labour, and another is prepared to give out stationery to such as may want it—both of these distributions being confined to this part of the day. The boys who are examined as to personal appearance, also occupy certain teachers on receiving their recorded fines, and in paying for their voluntary labour. The *Troverer* is likewise in attendance to restore, for a certain fee, any article to the owner. All this multifarious business is concluded by

9<sup>h</sup>. 10<sup>m</sup>. when the bell rings for breakfast.

The bell is rung for each meal mechanically at the appointed time; the cook is therefore aware that she must be ready to a moment, or keep all the boys waiting at the table. This has been found sufficient to ensure uniform punctuality. A tune is played while the boys assemble, and as they march into the breakfast-room.

At 9<sup>h</sup>. 25<sup>m</sup>. the defaulters, if any there should be, go to work.

As the time allowed the defaulters at each meal is intended to be no longer than is absolutely necessary, they are always helped immediately upon their entering the room.

At 9<sup>h</sup>. 30<sup>m</sup>. a bell rings for the re-admission of such as choose it into the principal school-room; the doors of which, during breakfast, are closed, in order that it may be swept.

At this time a boy is in attendance to exchange large coin for small, at a certain per centage: a business which he transacts at his own risk, and for his own profit.

At 9<sup>h</sup>. 45<sup>m</sup>. a general muster.—Immediately after

which the classes are formed for history or for geography; these exercises alternating every fortnight.

In either case, the first class is taught by the French master, the whole business being transacted in the French language.

At 10<sup>h</sup>. 20<sup>m</sup>. certain classes repeat their lessons.

Each class divides into an equal number of teachers and pupils, according to Dr. Bell's plan already described at page 135. Whenever the lessons are said to be *repeated*, it is to be understood that it is done in this manner.

At 10<sup>h</sup>. 35<sup>m</sup>. the classes for mental arithmetic are formed.

At 11 o'clock the ciphering classes assemble, but part come prepared for penmanship.

Each half practises writing or arithmetic in the alternate fortnights: that is, when the four highest classes write the four lowest cipher, and *vice versa*. Among the penmen, many are engaged in writing French exercises under the French master, who is careful that the exercises shall be well written. Many who do not require practice in penmanship pursue scale-drawing; some are occupied in composing essays, and others are employed at the printing press. In the weeks when the four highest ciphering classes are not engaged in arithmetic, the first and second Greek classes are draughted from the penmen. The remaining boys write copies or transcript-exercises in the alternate weeks, under the care of the writing master.

As soon as any boy has performed the appointed task, his work is examined; and, if it is correctly and neatly written, he has permission to go upon the play-ground; if not, he must write again, until the required quantity is well executed. Those who, at the conclusion of the time allowed, have not completed the task, are fined in proportion to the deficiency.

At 12 o'clock the Latin classes are exercised; the upper division for one fortnight, the lower for the other.

Of the pupils not engaged in Latin, some are exercised in reading; but the majority in French.



At 12<sup>h</sup>. 30<sup>m</sup>. the reading and French classes repeat or vary their lessons.

There is an appearance of great and unnecessary complexity in the arrangements for the two last hours of the forenoon; but the proceedings are simple enough in practice. These arrangements have been adopted with the view of enabling the mathematical and the writing masters, during the first of these hours, and the classical and French masters, during the last, to proceed at the same time without interfering with each other's classes.

At one o'clock a muster for dinner, at which the ranks call, as at prayers.

Here the band plays, while the boys march to the refectory. The defaulters, when there are any, go to work at this time, and take their dinner when the other boys have partly done, that they may neither be kept waiting, nor produce confusion, by being helped out of turn. At other meals this arrangement is unnecessary.

At 1<sup>h</sup>. 20<sup>m</sup>. the defaulters join the dinner party. Care is taken that they shall not wait a moment, and

At 1<sup>h</sup>. 40<sup>m</sup>. they are ready to go again to work.

At two o'clock a general muster.

After which, the boys form into the same classes, and pursue the same exercises as at eleven; with this exception, that, during the fortnight in which the four highest classes are not engaged in ciphering, the third and fourth Greek classes are formed, instead of the first and second; so that the boys who study Greek have just one half as much time for penmanship as the other boys have. Occasionally also, boys are drawn off at this time to practise short-hand.

At three o'clock the exercises are the same as at twelve; that is, principally Latin.

The pupils who are not engaged in Latin, however, instead of studying French, as in the forenoon, are exercised in geometry, when the upper half of the Latin classes is at liberty;

and when the lower half is disengaged, such pupils divide their time between reading and geography. The arrangement of the classes for these exercises is, therefore, in some measure dependent on that for Latin.

It will be seen that, during each fortnight, one half of the school has two lessons per day in ciphering, while the other half has no practice whatever. We prefer this arrangement to giving each boy a single lesson every day, because it renders the business of the muster less complex, lessens the number of classes to be examined in each week, and still allowing sufficient variety, prevents the pupil's attention from being distracted by a multiplicity of occupations. Mental arithmetic, however, it will be observed, is a daily occupation. A similar arrangement has been adopted for the same reasons, with respect to the Greek and Latin classes; but as these are all exercised before breakfast, no pupil neglects the classics altogether, even for a single day.

At four o'clock the classes for gymnastics assemble.

These exercises are described at page 133. Each boy (including the defaulters) chooses, with a few restrictions, the particular exercise in which he will engage; and those who may prefer going a walk, are allowed to do so, and a teacher attends them. When the weather is very unfavourable, twenty or thirty of the boys highest in rank, are exercised under a roof, which, though slated in a workman-like manner, was erected by the pupils with no other assistance than that of their teachers. They have here a considerable gymnastic apparatus. Those boys who cannot be accommodated under the roof, employ themselves in voluntary labour. Once in each week a drill sergeant attends at this hour.

At 4<sup>h</sup>. 30<sup>m</sup>. the gymnastic exercises are varied.

In wet weather, the boys under the roof now change places with the party next in rank.

On the Wednesday afternoons, if there are any causes to try, the assizes are held at the gymnastic hour.

At five o'clock refreshments are distributed.

As those teachers who are in the habit of presiding at the

musters dine at this hour, an assistant who had been but a few months connected with the school, was lately requested to superintend the proceedings. This gentleman found it very difficult to preserve any thing like order, and in one or two instances the conduct of a party, consisting, we believe, entirely of little boys, or new scholars, was almost riotous; so much so, that it was thought necessary to call in the assistance of a superior teacher, who, upon his arrival, however, found that the upper boys and the police had nearly restored order. After it had appeared tolerably manifest that the teacher in question had not as yet learned to conduct the business with the requisite precision, two of the upper boys, the judge and magistrate for the time, were requested to preside. Since this appointment, every thing has been remarkably quiet. The boys pride themselves upon the fact of this muster, at which no teacher is present, being as orderly as any at which all the teachers are engaged; and we learn that the slightest noise subjects the offender to expressions of the most decided disapprobation.

From five till a quarter before six, a few boys who have acquired a habit of stooping, lie down in the manner prescribed by the medical men of the present day.

To amuse them, a boy reads aloud, for which he has a salary of marks. Some of the *Stoopers* volunteer, and others are put into the class by the committee, by which body they will be released when cured. As this arrangement has been very recently made, we cannot speak of its results. Our gymnastic exercises we consider very beneficial in removing defects of this kind.

At 5<sup>h</sup>. 45<sup>m</sup>. a muster for evening school, at which the boarders only attend. The band plays, and the absentees are ascertained and recorded.

The majority of the boys are now engaged in learning their lessons for the next morning. The classical masters are in at-

tendance to give assistance when any difficulty arises ; and each boy may, by repeating his lessons to a teacher, ascertain whether or not he has completely mastered its difficulties.

The boys who do not commit to memory Latin lessons, perform other exercises as an equivalent. The foreigners have lessons in English, as in the morning : the French master has a class : some few are engaged in extemporaneous construction of Latin, with a junior classical assistant ; and the others perform transcript exercises.

At 6<sup>h</sup>. 30<sup>m</sup>. The washing begins, and is conducted much in the same manner as in the morning.

Each boy as he is washed, goes to an officer, and has a check placed opposite his name. This account is afterwards examined by a teacher, and fines are collected from all who are not checked. From half-past six till seven the library is open for the exchange of books. This library contains at present between seven and eight hundred volumes, and it is rapidly increasing.

At seven o'clock. A muster for supper. The band plays at this time.

At 7<sup>h</sup>. 15<sup>m</sup>. The defaulters leave the table and go to work.

At 7<sup>h</sup>. 35<sup>m</sup>. Prayers. A psalm tune is now played, and the absentees are recorded.

At eight o'clock the younger boys march up bed. They are accompanied by the band, and attended by a servant.

At nine o'clock the elder boys go to bed.

They now exchange their shoes for slippers, and arrange themselves in the same order as that in which they marched down in the morning.

The shoes at this time, and at eight o'clock, are collected in baskets of very open wicker work. When they are at all wet, they are placed at one of the registers for the admission of heated air, with which all the school apartments are warmed. In the morning the shoes are always perfectly dry. Three times in the course of the week the dirty shoes are exchanged for clean ones.

The hour from eight to nine is occasionally occupied by a lecture, on natural or experimental philosophy, history, or some other interesting subject; when many upper boys take notes, from which they afterwards write reports. Singing lessons are also given occasionally at this time. Attendance on either is voluntary.

Lest it should be thought, from the foregoing journal, that the tasks of our pupils are heavier than can be safely borne by young people, we think it right to remind the reader, that when we speak of a class being occupied for a certain space of time, it is by no means to be understood as a general rule that every boy in the class is in attendance throughout. In those exercises also which are not performed in classes, there is the same opportunity for the pupil, by activity and attention, to relieve himself from the confinement of the school-room. In point of fact, the health and spirits of the boys are good in no ordinary degree; and we have very frequently the pleasure of having our opinion on this head confirmed by the spontaneous remarks of occasional visitors. The youngest of the boys, too, have more frequent intervals of leisure than their elder companions; this being one of the purposes for which they are taught in a separate room. Still we are an-

xious to lessen the confinement of our pupils ; and whenever it can be done without injury to their general progress, the opportunity is gladly seized. The greatly improved punctuality which has been induced, and the strict attention paid to the economy of time, have enabled us in the course of the last two or three years to effect this very desirable purpose to a considerable extent.

A part of the boys are occasionally obliged to forego their other studies, to receive the lessons of those masters who do not reside in the house. The drawing-master, with two assistants, the dancing-master, with his assistant, and the music-master, attend once in every week ; but additional instruction is given in drawing and music, by resident teachers. The lessons from the occasional masters are so arranged, as to interfere but little with the ordinary routine of instruction.

Once in each month all the boys in the school, except a few of the youngest, write public letters to their friends. The choice of subject is left with the pupil, provided he prepare a letter by a given time, otherwise he is required to write upon a subject prescribed by his teacher ; every assistance being given to bring the task within the compass of the pupil's powers. These letters are written in various languages. The boys are, of course, at liberty to write privately as often as they please.

The week of the minor exhibition is devoted

principally to drawing maps, plans, and to graphic printing. These exercises are chosen at this time, in order that the boys may be drawn off, without inconvenience to rehearse their different parts. A considerable portion of the time is given to *metrical penmanship*.

The examination of penmanship, and of all other graphic exercises, takes place on the Friday afternoon : at the same time, a variety of other inspections is carried on ; as that of the school property in the possession of the different conservators :—examinations too are now made connected with the health of the pupils. The rewards for punctual attendance, the salaries for the different officers, and the weekly allowance of pocket-money, are all distributed at this time. In short, it is the season for almost every business of an irregular description.

On the Saturday morning and forenoon the examination of the classes takes place. On the Saturday afternoon, with a few exceptions, which have been stated, the pupils have holiday.

On the Sunday in the forenoon all attend public worship. The majority of the boys attend the worship of the established church, accompanied by some of the teachers. One party, consisting principally of foreigners, goes to the Catholic chapel, under the care of the French master ; and many others, for the most part, accompanied by teachers, are present at the worship of different dissenting congregations. The neighbouring town affords opportunity for join-

ing in the services of almost every denomination of Christians, and each pupil attends at such place of worship as his friends may point out.

As the places of worship are at some distance from Hazelwood, the boys are not in the habit of attending them in the afternoon; but prayers, and a discourse from some one of our most celebrated divines, are read in the school-room. The basis of the service is the liturgy of the established church; but the usual care is taken to avoid whatever may militate against the peculiar opinions of any religious sect. In the intervals of worship, the Scriptures are read in different languages.



*Initiation of a Pupil.*

FROM the number and apparent complexity of our regulations, the reader may be led to suppose that the initiation of a boy must be the work of considerable time; and, it is true, that some months are necessary before a pupil can enter thoroughly into the spirit of the system: such a practical acquaintance with our plans, however, as enables a boy, even of inferior talents, to engage with advantage in the business of the school, is very readily acquired. Every care is taken to render a boy's introduction as easy as possible. We have already stated, that the new scholars receive lessons in the school regulations, and that they are, for a time, exempted from all fines; also, that it is the uniform custom for the other boys to make them donations of transferable marks. A new-comer is, moreover, excused from all compulsory offices for the first three months; and when, in any particular instance, this time appears insufficient, it is uniformly increased by the committee. But we have often been astonished to find how soon the steady current of our discipline carries with it every obstacle, and gradually confers its own momentum. Owing to a sudden increase in numbers, full one half of our present pupils have entered the school within the last nine months; of these, many had been accustomed to the most relaxed, while others had been

exposed to the most severe discipline ; and yet their admission does not appear to have produced any material effect on the general order of the school. Many of these boys are not more than seven or eight years of age, but they already possess a very sufficient practical knowledge of the school regulations.

Upon the entrance of a new scholar, the first thing is to examine him carefully as to the state of his acquirements in every department of knowledge, when the result of the whole is reduced to writing. The pupil also gives a specimen of his acquisitions in penmanship, composition, drawing, and in language, as shewn by translation. Two copies, or rather two originals of this record are made ; one is despatched to the friends of the youth, with a request that we may be informed, if any part should appear erroneous, in order that by a re-examination all doubt may be removed. The other copy we file. These reports furnish the parent, the teacher, and what is equally important, the boy himself, with the most accurate information as to his present acquirements, and with the means of judging from time to time of his future progress.

## CHAPTER III.

### REVIEW OF THE SYSTEM.

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No topic of complaint is more common among professional men, than that of ignorant interference. The physician inveighs against quacks; the attorney ironically thanks the author of "Every Man his own Lawyer," for the increase of litigation; and the public teacher, when pestered with hints and objections, sighs at the recollection of the implicit confidence with which parents of the last generation entrusted their offspring to the experience of his predecessors.

But professional men should not forget that some of the most eminent of their number were intruders;—that John Hunter did not sit down to study anatomy, until he had passed many years at the carpenter's bench;—that Erskine had served both in the army and the navy, before he became a lawyer;—and that Joseph Lancaster, who has so much improved the machinery of elementary education, long exercised the trade of a basket-maker.\* Neither should

\* Had we time for such a purpose, it would be easy to collect materials for carrying the parallel through almost every art and science. At the present moment, we only call to mind the names of Swartz, the inventor of gunpowder, who was a monk; of Arkwright, the im-

it be forgotten by the public, that the instances of success have been published; not so those of failure: they would naturally excite but little attention, and would soon be forgotten, even by the few who had known of their existence. We have spoken too only of men, who, having changed the object of their pursuit, applied themselves to their new profession with intense and exclusive ardour, and brought to the task talents of commanding excellence; so that their success furnishes but little ground of argument for the justification of others, who, without such talent and devotedness, think themselves qualified to decide in the last resort on questions which have experienced for years the painful attention of men exclusively engaged in their examination.

Still the professional man, though not bound to follow implicitly the suggestions of his friends, ought by no means to turn a deaf ear to them; for a valuable hint may be thrown out by one who would in vain attempt to form a system. Long familiarity will ever tend to render us insensible to many imperfections, which are at once detected by the unpractised; and the bystander's want of skill is often more than compensated by his freedom from prejudice. Mental habitudes are at least as powerful as those of the body, and not at all more discernible to their possessors. If Sir Joshua Reynolds carefully listened

prover of cotton machinery, a hair-dresser; of Baskerville, the celebrated printer, who had been a japanner; and of Brindley, the great engineer, who had been a day-labourer.

to the criticisms of children, few men, we conceive, would be degraded by giving some moments of their attention to even the casual remarks of those whose opinions are unfettered by system.

We claim no praise for the candour of our opinions, as we have in some degree taken them "upon compulsion;" for we have found, that while few have hitherto presumed to discuss with their physician the correctness of his prescriptions, and still fewer to follow their legal adviser through all the mazes of his practice, every one considers himself, as a matter of course, a complete adept in the science of education; and it has been for some time held as an axiom, that the only good reason for sending children to school, is want of time on the part of the parent for their instruction at home. We doubt if a man could be found in the three kingdoms, sufficiently vain to make a similar avowal with respect to the repair of his old shoes. Such being the state of public opinion, we have found it convenient to bring our own ideas on the subject as near to it as possible; but although, as we have shown, something has been accomplished in this way, much remains to be done; for we have never succeeded in ridding ourselves of the prejudice, that it is one thing to have learnt, and another to be able to teach; that it is very possible to possess vast stores of knowledge without being able to impart them, even to the willing and anxious pupil; and that to fix the volatile, stimulate the sluggish, and overcome the obstinate,

demands an acquaintance with the human mind, not quite innate, nor likely to be gained without some experience.

Another peculiarity in our case is, that the public teacher is judged of by a different standard to that applied to his humbler neighbour. The criterion by which the merits of the cobbler are ascertained, is the length of time which elapses before it is necessary to renew the application to his skill ; none think of requiring the exact circumference of his lapstone, or of informing themselves respecting the particular species of hog to which he was indebted for his bristles. They only ask whether or not he is successful ; and leaving the choice of means to his own discretion, they hold him responsible only for the end. But as regards the teacher, it has sometimes appeared to us, that public attention has been so much engaged on the modes of education, that it forgets to gain the requisite information respecting the final effect.

This peculiarity will, we know, be accounted for by the magnitude of the interest confided to the teacher ; but, it should be recollected, that this importance ought not to change the method by which a judgment is formed ; it ought only to subject the evidence, whatever it is, to a more rigorous examination. A better excuse is the difficulty of ascertaining what is due to the talents of the pupil, and what to the exertions of the master ; but then a judgment ought not to be formed from one or two

instances ; in so important a research, no time or labour could be thrown away : and, if we may estimate the feelings of others by our own, nothing could be more satisfactory than an examination so complete, as should terminate in placing a boy in the hands of his teacher with a feeling of perfect confidence, or in not sending him to the school at all. Yet we are grateful for an interference which proceeds from a wish to benefit us ; and finding public opinion, or at least public practice, to run in favour of such interference, we bow with all deference. We lay open our plans to inspection, and since criticism will come, we wish to prepare for its attack by a fortification of every point which appears to us to be at all exposed. Dropping metaphor, we are convinced, that parts of our system, taken by themselves, are open to objection ; but we hope the majority of the “partial evils” are productive of “universal good ;” and that whatever of them have not such an excuse will be gradually removed.

We are told (and, after what we have said, we ought not perhaps to deny the position,) that the bystander sees most of the game ; but we venture humbly to suggest, that he cannot possess this superiority, unless he be so placed as to see the whole board ; for if his view of part of it be intercepted by a head or an elbow, he will be very likely to form erroneous conclusions. A good player will sacrifice many a choice move, because he cannot spare a par-

ticular piece from its place ; but if the spectator be so situated that he cannot see the reason of the detention, he will be very likely to attribute to inadvertence, that which is the result of deeper investigation than his own. In like manner, we have often had parts of our plan the subject of criticism, from which we could readily have defended them, if we could have entered into an examination of the whole system ; but this is not to be done in the short time which a teacher can subtract from his labours for the purpose of oral explanation. This full investigation we are about to commence : we have already laid before our readers an exposition of our means, and we are now to explain the end we intend to produce ; since means are valuable only in proportion as they are adapted to produce the end in view.

The great features of this object we hope will have been already appreciated by the intelligent reader. We shall be disappointed if he have not already discovered, that by the establishment of a system of legislation and jurisprudence, wherein the power of the master is bounded by general rules, and the duties of the scholar accurately defined, and where the boys themselves are called upon to examine and decide upon the conduct of their fellows, we have provided a course of instruction in the great code of morality, which is likely to produce far more powerful and lasting effects than any quantity of mere precept. If morality is a science as well as a practice (and who



will deny the classification ?) it must assuredly be a science of the highest importance :\* but in every other branch of scientific education, that mode of instruction wherein the pupil is merely passive, as in listening, has been gradually changed for others which demand his active co-operation. Who would think of teaching arithmetic by lectures, in which he should work all the problems himself, while his pupil sat silent and inactive ? or who could think the scholar likely to become a profound geometrician, whose master was contented with reading demonstrations to him ? Indeed, it is an acknowledged truth among teachers, that no man can do them a greater service, than by reducing every art and science, which the extending information of society from time to time demands, to be made a part of juvenile education, under the dominion of " Practical instruction."

We shall not be called upon to prove, that, to give a knowledge of the science of morality is an excellent

\* On the momentous subject of religion we feel we ought to say something ; and yet, in common we suppose with all conscientious teachers, whose pupils belong to different religious communities, we have had great difficulty in ascertaining our duty on this head. It is almost impossible to enter into any minute course of religious instruction without entrenching upon disputed ground ; and yet we feel that no parents, except such as coincide with our own views, can intend us to influence the religious opinions of their children ; and we should therefore conceive such influence to be a gross breach of trust. At the same time, whatever religious exercises can be joined by all, are not omitted. Whatever formularies too are in unison with the respective religious feelings of the parents, are taught ; and provision is made for attendance on such public worship as is best calculated to prevent the evils which might arise from any dissimilarity of religious views between the parent and his child.

means of ensuring a correct practice of it ; because, the position being universally allowed as respects every other department of human learning, we may fairly call upon the objector to show why the analogy, which holds good in every other instance, should fail here. But even if the effect of this science on the conduct of the student were as remote as it is immediate, still, as exercising his mind, and extending his information, it would equally well deserve his attention, with the objects to which he is usually directed.

They, however, who will take the trouble to glance over the history of their early years, and call to mind the pertinacity with which their schoolfellows screened each other from the most clearly deserved punishment ; and the many acts of oppression which remained unredressed because the sufferers dared not to disobey the stern edict against “ bearing tales,”—the only one in the community that was never violated,—will think something done towards improving even the practice of morals, when they learn, that in an experience of more than two years,\* one solitary instance only has occurred in which the verdict of the Jury did not coincide with the opinion of the master. Great, but of course unexpressed anxiety, has more than once been felt by us, lest the influence of a leading boy, which in every school must be considerable, should overcome the virtue of

\* Trial by Jury was established early in 1816. This chapter was written in November, 1818.

the jury ; but our fears have been uniformly relieved, and the hopes of the offender crushed, by the voice of the foreman, pronouncing, in a shrill but steady tone, the awful word—Guilty !

One exception there has been, and but one ; and then it was the opinion of the attending teachers, that the jury did not understand the case. The boys who composed it happened to be very young, because the number present being unusually small, the elder scholars were all engaged in the various offices of the court.

The evils which the old system entailed on the weak and the timid have been portrayed by the hand of genius,\* and have produced the effect upon the public mind which might naturally be expected from such facts, related by such a master.

Public opinion (as it has been somewhere said) very much resembles a pendulum,—the farther it vibrates from the centre, the farther does the next oscillation carry it on the other side : the danger seems now to be, lest in the public horror of boyish tyranny, a system of nursery-like *surveillance* should be adopted, which would be even more fatal to the future character. We have known establishments in which the boys were constantly under the eye of a tutor, and where every trifling injury was the subject of immediate appeal to the supreme power. The indulgence of this querulousness increased it, as might naturally be expected,

\* Vide Cowper's Memoirs of his early life.

beyond all endurance. Before the master had time to examine the justice of one complaint, his attention was called away to redress another; until wearied with investigation into offences, which were either too trifling, or too justly provoked for punishment, he treated all complainants with harshness, heard their accusations with incredulity, and thus tended, by a first example, to the re-establishment of the old system.

By the plan which we have adopted, the trouble of petty investigation devolves on the leading boys, for each is at one time or other called upon to fill the office of magistrate; by this means an interest is created among a body, much more influential than the masters against frivolous accusation. While we are upon the subject of jurisprudence, we will remark, that no teacher can, with a proper attention to the duties of his office, afford the necessary time for examination sufficiently complete to preclude all possibility of injustice. Who cannot recollect, when with swelling breast he turned from the magisterial tribunal, bearing a punishment which was undeserved, and might have been escaped, if he could have been allowed a few moments for explanation? The right of appeal, and the absence of corporal punishment, preclude this danger. Proof, comparatively slight, will suffice to put the accused upon his appeal; and thus the master may exercise his prerogative with the promptitude so necessary to check those little disorders, which will be constantly aris-

ing in every school while human nature shall retain its present attributes. We forbear to descant on the advantages of learning in early life to weigh evidence, and balance probabilities; because we have not undertaken the task of uttering all that could be said by a zealous advocate, but only what appears to be necessary to show the propriety of our aberrations from received plans, whenever we have made any.

Of our legislation we have little to say, except that we have never found the slightest disposition in committees to slacken the reins of discipline. They have even passed many laws restrictive of their liberties; they naturally and fairly demand the reasons for such restrictions to be laid before them, nor have they ever shown themselves incompetent to judge of their value.

In the present state of society, a knowledge of the principles of legislation must be valuable in every rank of life. There is scarcely any man who is not sometimes called upon to assist in framing laws for the government of institutions for either religious, charitable, commercial, or literary purposes; and every one will have occasion to regulate the conduct of his family. If it were only that the boys learned the forms by which public business is carried on, practised as they are among them with punctilious exactitude, they would at least gain the advantage of being prepared to fill their future places in society without the trouble and pain of initiation.

Of our punishments we may be able to say more at a future period; at present we are trying the experiment whether corporal punishment may not be entirely abolished: the plan has had a trial of nine months, and the result is hitherto favourable: but until more time has elapsed, we must not speak too confidently.\* In a few instances it has been found or supposed necessary, to resent insolence by a blow: but this may be rather called an assertion of private right, than an official punishment. In these cases a single blow has almost always been found sufficient, the rarity of the infliction rendering severity unnecessary.†

Confinement, and disability to fill certain offices, are our severest punishments; — public disgrace, which is painful in exact proportion to the good feeling of the offender, is not employed, and every measure is avoided which would destroy self-respect. Expulsion has been resorted to, rather than a boy should be submitted to treatment which might lead himself and his schoolfellows to forget that he was a gentleman.

Heretofore every classification of rank by the master, according to the intellectual and moral qualities

\* The plan has now been in operation more than four years. We cannot imagine any motive strong enough to force us back to the old practice. March, 1822.

† This mode of redress which the reviewer in the London Magazine humorously calls “a private turn-up between the boy and his tutor” is, we are happy to say, quite obsolete. No boy now in the school has ever received any corporal punishment whatever; at least, since he came among us. May, 1825.

of his pupils, was powerless the moment his boys had passed the door of the school-room. On the playground, the best classic was one of the "*profanum vulgus*," when his learning was put into competition with the *science* of the boxer; but if the rank awarded by their companions be ever dearer to schoolboys than that bestowed by the master, (and for proof that such is the fact, we appeal with confidence to the recollection of all our readers,) it will not be deemed an unimportant addition to his power, that the boys are now thrown upon the necessity of bestowing the offices which give rank, to those of their number who have some better qualifications for filling them than go to the adornment of the accomplished bruiser; a necessity arising from the interests which they intrust to the care of their committees, their judge, their sheriff, and their magistrate. On the other hand, the *notables* themselves are induced to cultivate a very different species of manners to that usually in vogue among elder schoolboys, in order to ensure the general suffrage. Further, by giving the elective power, in the ratio of acquirement, the choice is insured to that class of boys whose example ought to carry most weight.

Thus have we laboured to induce in the minds of our pupils a constant motive for mutual examination, and a constant feeling of mutual responsibility. Our last means is our court of character. Whenever a boy above the age of thirteen leaves the school, a sub-committee is appointed to draw up a report of

his conduct and acquisitions. This ordeal, growing into importance in the eyes of the pupil as the period for undergoing it approaches, must furnish a powerful motive to excellence in those whose example is most likely to be followed ; and it also fills the place of the artificial incitements offered by the master, which, however strong in very early life, gradually lose their force as the time draws near when the pupil will no longer be subjected to their influence.

By thus directing the minds of our pupils towards the real merits of each other, we have also, we hope, secured the alliance of that powerful feeling, love of sympathy ; which, according to Dr. Adam Smith, is the foundation of moral sentiment. Perhaps the proposition might be generalized with advantage. Perhaps love of sympathy might rather be considered the power which brings the wishes and opinions of the individual into unison with those of society, whatever they may be. If this notion be correct, it must depend on the good or bad state of society, whether love of sympathy shall have a moral or an immoral effect upon individuals. How often have war and superstition, to say nothing of minor causes, warped the opinions of mankind in their favour ? Could it be reasonably expected, while the highest honours both in earth and heaven were, by our northern ancestors,\* held to belong of right to the destroyer of his species, and to him only, that love of sympathy should have any other effect than

\* Mallett's Northern Antiquities.



to stimulate the war-fever to madness? Or when, in a later age, every sin was believed to be fully atoned by pilgrimage, the founding of monasteries, or wearing the cowl, how could love of sympathy restrain the grossest outrages on the peace of the community, while public opinion held out so easy a reparation? A school is but a nation in miniature; and the teacher who would secure the co-operation of the best and strongest motives, must be no inattentive reader of history.

We know that the love of sympathy will act in one way or other, and act forcibly; and it is a matter of anxious importance with us, that its force should be in alliance, and not in conflict with the precepts of religion and morality. And hence the necessity of directing the attention of our pupils to those qualities of their schoolfellows which consist with good morals; and of imposing upon them the necessity of placing at their head boys who will be most likely to give a high tone to the public feeling.

Our little system of jurisprudence will also be found to increase, or at least preserve, the value which the scholar attaches to the sympathy or approbation of his master. When the *lex non scripta* which obtains among the boys, is at variance with the statute law enacted by the master, it is evident that his praise or censure must sometimes contend with public opinion; and in this contest it will inevitably succumb, or at least lose very much of its

force. The same effect will be produced when he is solicited, every hour of the day, to hear frivolous complaints. His opinions are sure of being disregarded from the frequency with which they are expressed; if they do not, in some degree, deserve neglect from the hasty investigation upon which they are formed. But where the rules of judgment on which the master acts, are the same with those adopted by the scholars, and when his approbation or displeasure is not worn out by excessive use, its calm and deliberate expression must produce a deep and lasting effect, and excite in the bosom of its object serious reflection.\*

The second great end which has been kept in view in the construction of our plan, is a strict economy of time. When the conscientious teacher re-

\* “[*Scholar jury principle.*] *Advantage* 1st. The master stands hereby preserved, in a great degree, if not altogether, from the suspicion of *partiality*, and *tyranny*.—2d. By the necessary solemnities by which the application of the *punishment* is thus preceded, the attention of the scholar is more firmly fixed upon it, and the idea of it rendered the more impressive.—3d. The scholars are at this early age initiated in the exercise of the functions of *judicature*, as well as in the *knowledge* of what belongs to *justice*, while the *love* of it instils itself into their breasts.—4th. The tendency, so natural amongst persons of any age subject to coercion, to unite in a sort of *standing conspiracy* against those by whom they are kept under that pressure, is counteracted and diminished.”

*Bentham's Chrestomathia.*

When we published the first edition of the present work, we had not seen Mr. Bentham's valuable Treatise on Education; so that we are innocent of the offence of plagiarism. While speaking of Chrestomathia, we cannot refrain from expressing our admiration of the mental power which has, at a grasp, seized on so many of those principles which we have attained only by a long and toilsome experience.

flects that this, the most valuable property of his pupils, is entrusted to his disposal, he must feel a heavy responsibility upon him, that not even the smallest part of it shall be spent without purchasing its value. We have been startled at the reflection, that if, by a faulty arrangement, one minute be lost to sixty of our boys, the injury sustained would be equal to the waste of an hour by a single individual. Let every teacher keep this truth before him, and minutes will dilate, in his mind's eye, to a magnitude too imposing to allow of neglect.

In order to accomplish our purpose, we first found it necessary to induce an almost superstitious punctuality on the part of the monitor. This was not done without considerable difficulty; and the principle by which it was effected was the discovery of chance. When the duty of the monitor was easy, and he had time for play, the exact moment for ringing the bell was but seldom observed; but when, as the system grew more complex, he was more frequently in requisition, it was found that with increased labour came increased perfection; and the same boy who had complained of the difficulty of being punctual when he had to ring the bell only ten times in the day, found his duty comparatively easy when his memory was taxed to a fourfold amount. The principle lies in the circumstance of the boy's mind never having time to divest itself of its care. It is amusing to see what a living timepiece the giddiest boy will become during his week of office.

The succession of monitors gradually infuses a habit, and somewhat of a love of punctuality, into the *body scholastic* itself. The masters also cannot think of being absent when the scholars are waiting for them; and thus the nominal and the real hours of attendance become exactly the same. By this precision another important advantage is gained. The pupil feels sure that the time by which the lesson was appointed to be learnt, will, with a fated certainty, be that at which it will be required to be said; this will in most cases be found of itself sufficient to ensure the accomplishment of the task.

Great care is taken that no boy shall, at any moment of the day, be obliged to sit in idleness, under any pretext whatever; when the stated quantity of labour is performed, he goes to play; but while he remains in the school-room, he has no right to be an instant unemployed. The reward of industry, a short cessation from labour, is immediate; so that a lively boy is not doomed to

“Count the slow clock, and *play* exact at noon.”

On the contrary, instead of watching with feverish impatience to see both the hands *culminate*, he employs himself ardently at his task; the instant he has accomplished it, constraint ceases, and he “breathes empyreal air.”

If the time of the scholar ought to be kept sacred from waste, it is of equal importance that the labour of the teacher should be expended so as to produce the greatest possible effect. To us it has appeared,

that he can scarcely be so well employed as in giving to his pupils a clear and full explanation of the various difficulties which arise to impede their course ; but this cannot be done unless they study in classes, for a separate conversation of a single minute with each boy, will occupy as much of his time as one of ten minutes with ten boys : how little can be done in one minute in the way of explanation, and how much in ten, as a mere question of arithmetic, is too clearly in our favour to need a comment. The experienced teacher will be aware that the ratio is, in effect, greater than this ; for by attempting to compress that matter into the space of one minute which ought to occupy ten, he will probably convey no information at all, and run a risk of confusing and discouraging the pupil, by increasing his idea of the difficulty, and exciting his repugnance to encounter it.

By teaching the mathematics in classes, we gain an opportunity of showing and explaining the nature and use of different instruments, as well as of the various weights and measures, and of elucidating the many barbarous terms which the writers on commercial arithmetic have cast, like stumbling-blocks, into the path of the young student.

By teaching penmanship to several boys, all employed in writing the same copy, the master has time to lay down by rule, as well as to exhibit by exemplars, the relative proportions of letters and spaces.

By hearing the pupils construe in classes, the

teacher may take care that no allusion passes unnoticed through the mind of the learner; and relieved from the long and irksome labour of hearing the same sentences time after time, he has opportunity and spirits for entering into a more close and complete explanation of the whole task.

After furnishing the pupil with the *opportunity* of spending his time to the greatest advantage, our next care was to examine how we had provided for supplying him with *motives* to an advantageous employment of it.

Leaving out of consideration the motive of sympathy, of which we have already spoken, they may be ranged under five heads:—Love of knowledge—love of employment—emulation—hope of reward—and fear of punishment. We have placed them in what appears to us to be the order of their excellence. Some of our readers may perhaps think that emulation stands too low in the scale; for it is common and very natural to suppose, before a trial of the experiment, that emulation alone is a motive sufficient to overcome all obstacles, and carry the student to the goal of his destination without suffering him ever to flag in his course. But emulation is a stimulus, and it is in the very nature of stimuli to lose their power when constantly employed. Indeed such a state of excitement, as in the absence of all other motives would be sufficient to produce the desired effect, would be too powerful for the human mind to bear for any length of time. It may be very useful

as a temporary expedient, and the skilful instructor may sometimes find it accord with his views to blow up a vivid flame for a particular purpose, but he must be aware that extraordinary exertion is always followed by extraordinary languor.

For the gentle and temperate exercise of emulation, we have, we think, sufficiently provided. Indeed, where numbers of boys are collected together, so large that every one has competitors equal, or nearly equal, in years, talents, and acquisitions to himself, where almost every study is social, where the progress of the students is so often compared, and the rank of each so nicely adjusted, it would be very difficult, if not impossible, to prevent this motive from exerting every fair and safe power over the minds of the pupils.

The fear of punishment and the hope of reward, besides being liable to the same objection with emulation, as to the comparative transitoriness of their power from too frequent use, have their peculiar disadvantages. No mind can be constantly under the dominion of fear, without falling into miserable, and often irretrievable, degradation; nor can it be expected, that pursuits closely associated in the memory with this most painful feeling, should be followed a single moment, after coercion is withdrawn.

Much as all men are inclined to magnify the importance of their own profession, we are compelled to avow, that we think no advantages of education

ever likely to be reaped by a pupil in such a state of mind, can compensate him for the pain and injury which will accompany their acquisition. The latter evil does not attach itself to the *hope of reward*. But this motive is open to objection, inasmuch as it gives to the pupil an object different to the real end of education. Improvement being lowered in his mind to the rank of a means, is not likely to be followed after the reward is obtained. Nor is this the worst effect : the pupil, instead of taking a general view of the subject, and indulging himself in those collateral speculations upon it, which tend so much to show him its real bearings, considers every thing besides the mere straight-forward accomplishment of his task, according to the prescribed form, as so much exertion thrown away. Under these impressions, we have endeavoured that our punishments may rather be certain than either painful or degrading. Our rewards are various, that they may be adapted to variety of disposition ; and light, that the enjoyment of them may not be followed by satiety, not draw aside the inclinations of the pupil.

Many boys are carried forward in the course of instruction from the mere love of employment. Being required to attend so many hours to certain studies, and not being allowed to spend their time in any other manner, they seem to require no further stimulus, and gaily sit down to their task. This happy disposition, rather perhaps given by nature than induced by art, will be very effective, if



care be taken to place no difficulties in its way, which a fair degree of exertion will not surmount. We have placed this motive high in the list, first, because it is permanent, and may be expected to act after the period of compulsory education shall be passed; and secondly, because it has no ulterior object to call away the attention of the scholar from the pure acquisition of knowledge. Yet, as it engages him in study merely because that is the only object on which its exertions can be expended, there is no certainty that study will be preferred, when his choice of objects is unfettered; therefore, 'even the love of employment must yield in excellence to the love of knowledge. This combines within itself all the excellences which belong to the others, without partaking of their defects. It is permanent. Its power increases, instead of diminishing, with exercise. Difficulties, to a certain extent, add to its force; and it can rarely be diverted from its object, by the temptations which offer themselves in such profusion to the young man the moment restraint has loosed him from its hold. Above all, it directs the pupil to the acquisition of real, efficient information. To us it appears a matter of such importance to induce this motive, that we think, if it were possible for the pupil to acquire a love of knowledge, and that alone, during the whole time he remained at school, he would have done more towards ensuring a stock of knowledge in maturer age, than if he had been the recipient of as much learning as

ever was infused into the passive schoolboy by flogging or coaxing. Why are self-educated men so successful, notwithstanding all their disadvantages, but because they study from a sincere attachment to the art or science to which they apply? They do not go to the *grinder* to be prepared to *stand* an *examination*; nor do they fill their heads with a heap of crude ideas, which they only wish may *keep* until *the day* is past, when they will be turned out as so much rubbish: the student feeling that they never can afford him the least possible quantity of either pleasure or utility.

The best means of exciting a love of knowledge will be readily discovered, if we reflect a few moments on the origin of knowledge itself. Every acquisition would, at first, be made from an immediate view of utility. No man would undergo the trouble of investigating the nature of plants, unless he, or his friends, stood in need of their medicinal virtues. The motions of the heavenly bodies were first observed by sailors and husbandmen. As mankind became civilized, a prospect of advantage more and more distant sufficed to induce their exertions; still that prospect, though remote, was visible, and beguiled the toilsomeness of the road. But in the present state of education, the young traveller is expected to set out without having the most distant idea of the end of his journey, or the cause for which he travels; for how can he, by any vigour of intuition, even imagine the future fund of pleasure

and profit which is to accrue to him from committing to memory "*Propria quæ maribus*:" or from poring into the mysteries of long division, with a dirty slate before him, and the *frustum* of a pencil half an inch long in his fingers, heaping one set of figures upon the ghosts of their predecessors?

Let us not be misunderstood; we are not quarrelling with either the Eton Grammar, or The Tutor's Assistant, two books for which we have all possible respect; we only mean to show, that very much more is expected from children than is at all times admitted.

We are aware, that until the opinions of society undergo a great alteration, it will always be necessary for the teacher to lead his pupil through many dark and intricate defiles; and to direct him to confide in *his* experience, for the assurance that he will at last emerge into light. But is nothing to be attempted, because every thing cannot be accomplished? It is certainly possible so to modify the course of instruction, that the pupil shall now and then catch a glimpse of the promised land; and this is all we attempt.

Every boy, for example, can find reasons why the power of translation is valuable; let the tutor then ascertain, by a careful examination, how much knowledge of the grammar will enable the scholar to begin to construe; and engage him as soon as possible in employment which shall have some respectability in his eyes. We do not mean to say that the gram-

mar shall be laid aside ; let the progress in it be concurrent with that in translation, and let the scholar be taught the value of the grammar as a book of reference.

In arithmetic, the means are more obvious. The common mode of teaching arithmetic is to commence with abstract numbers : but is it possible for a child to see, that any thing is gained by adding together long rows of figures to which no meaning is attached ? Certainly not : and hence the irksomeness of the early stages of that science. Again, what master but must have observed that his younger pupils, after working a problem, are sometimes perfectly ignorant of the effect which has been produced, and are unable to write an answer to the question proposed ? In such a case what has the pupil gained ? Some little increase of expertness in adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing, perhaps ; but is there no countervailing loss to be deplored ? Is not the pupil's mind suffering injury by thus blindly applying means without knowing what end is to be effected, and sometimes without being conscious that any object is intended to be attained—beyond that of exercising his patience ? We think that neither the mind nor the temper can remain uninjured, or at least unendangered, by constant subjection to such a process ; and if some sacrifice of time were rendered necessary by an alteration which should obviate such evils, it would not, in the opinion of the judicious parent, be thrown away. No sacrifice,

however, is demanded, except perhaps a small one on the part of the master, who is amply repaid by the cheerful and ardent co-operation of the pupil.

We commence arithmetic with easy questions, the scope and utility of which the little pupil can readily comprehend. Every child at once feels that he has made an important and valuable acquisition, when he has learned how to calculate all the various little problems which may be constructed respecting his tops and marbles, their prices and their comparative value. It is of little consequence whether these questions are carefully arranged or not; their being miscellaneous will only more agreeably exercise the mind of the scholar; if care is taken that the simple operations, the multiplying and dividing, the subtracting and adding, are not of themselves too difficult.

There is almost always a reason for every custom, which renders it eligible at the time of its establishment. That of commencing with mechanical operations partly arose, we conceive, from the difficulty which instructors found in teaching their pupils to extract the numbers from a question, and to place them so as to be worked by the arithmetical machinery. With the assistance of our chalking-boards and classes, we have conquered this difficulty. If no boy of the class can state the question, the master does that without loss of time, which by the common mode is done after a period of idleness—he goes through the statement himself. By united

efforts the problem is answered before the meaning of the question, and the curiosity excited by it, have faded from the mind of the learner. Another question is immediately given; practice soon presents every difficulty in every variety; the young scholar begins gradually to see the use and value of signs, and daily exercise renders the increasing lines of numbers easily manageable.

While on this part of our subject, we must acknowledge our obligations to what is called mental arithmetic; that is, calculation without the employment of written symbols. It would not be easy, in the few words which we can spare for the subject, to enlarge upon all the uses of mental arithmetic; the rapidity of its operations; the powers of abstraction which it gives the pupil; the advantages which it confers in transacting the business of real life; and the amusement with which it supplies the mind, under circumstances where none but strictly mental employment is practicable. Nor is such a discussion necessary to our present purpose, which only regards its value in the opinion of the pupil. Every child soon becomes interested in the common concerns of the world, and every thing like real business acquires an air of respectability in his eyes; it is, therefore, easy, by assimilating the questions to those which actually occur in the transactions of life, and by calling upon him to answer them in the mode in which he has found them answered by his friends and their tradesmen, to show him that he is rising

into usefulness as he becomes master of the subject. The motive in this instance is mingled with another, which ought, perhaps, to have had a separate attention, namely, love of imitation. The child imitates the youth, the youth imitates the man, and every man, until his habits are fixed, feels a disposition to imitate those above him : love of imitation may, therefore, be made a powerful incentive to the acquisition of knowledge, if the teacher be careful to show the connexion between cause and effect in its clearest light.

To return to our immediate subject; all the operations of surveying are, by the same feeling of utility, joined to the love of imitation, rendered extremely pleasant to boys; nor is their enjoyment lessened by the necessity of performing their labours in the open air. Thus engaged, they feel that they are employed in real business, and have an opportunity of measuring their attainments with those of men. Many of their former studies are at once brought into use; they now see the reason for an accurate acquaintance with the laws of numbers and spaces. To a familiarity with arithmetic, mensuration, and trigonometry, they must join the manual facility of constructing maps and plans : they exercise their discretion, in choosing points of observation; they learn expertness in the use, and care in the preservation of instruments; and, above all, from this feeling that they are really *at work*, they acquire that sobriety and steadiness of conduct, in which the

elder school-boy is so often inferior to his less fortunate neighbour, who has been removed at an early age to the accompting-house. And here let us pause a moment, to lay down a general position. Whenever the scholar can be led to engage with pleasure in a pursuit, which demands a considerable fund of subsidiary knowledge, the tutor gains two very important points. First, he renders himself certain that his pupil is in possession of what he has been heretofore taught ; or what is, perhaps, even better, he ensures the desire of self-improvement in order to supply the defects of memory ; and secondly, he lays before the boy's eyes the utility of various branches of instruction. How often does the desire of acquisition begin to operate in a few months after the close of education ; and what produces such a change ? The experience, however short, of the utility of acquisitions which were perhaps lately despised. If, then, any means have been devised of inducing such a sentiment, while the time and opportunity of improvement remain unimpaired, something has been done to spare the future man many moments of painful retrospection. " Every person (says Gibbon) has two educations, one which he receives from others, and one, more important, which he gives to himself."\* The latter of these is seldom begun till the former is ended ; an earlier commencement of it would perhaps ensure greater success to both.

\* Life and Letters.



In speaking of the advantages of real business, we may be allowed to mention again the transactions of the Committees, and Courts of Justice, which are all recorded, and thus furnish no unimportant exercise in a very exact and useful kind of *composition*; a department of education which we confess has often caused us considerable uneasiness. We fully agree with Miss Edgeworth, that "no person should be expected to write, unless he has something to say;" indeed, the utter uselessness of any other composition than that which is employed as a vehicle for the communication of ideas, must excite, even in the mind of a child, a contempt even to loathing. We dare not calculate the mental injury which must necessarily ensue, "from the Egyptian compulsion, under which some young people are placed, of thus making bricks without straw."\* Do we not despise in the adult, all composition but that which proceeds from a mind stored with ideas? What are our opinions respecting paucity of thoughts and profusion of words? Why has every system for teaching composition to men failed of producing any thing great? Why has the science of Rhetoric itself fallen into contempt, but because style is merely the *channel*, not the water; and if scantily supplied, becomes an object of derision, in exact proportion to the labour with which it was excavated? If this representation be correct, it certainly must be conferring, at least, an

\* Locke.

equivocal benefit on a youth, to force him to collect his few poor and scattered ideas together, and send them shivering along the cold and barren periods of a school theme; reminding the master of the broth of old Milnwood, where, "in an ocean of liquid, were indistinctly discovered by close observers, two or three short ribs of lean mutton sailing to and fro." \*

The resources of every youth are necessarily bounded; years must pass before his ideas can have had the requisite seasoning (to use a homely phrase); and until the period of mature age, original composition can only tend to vitiate his taste, and lower his standard of excellence.† But there are other means open for acquiring the minor qualifications of grammatical correctness, and tact in the choice of words, and of these we avail ourselves. Translations, both in prose and verse, are expected from the senior boys, and they are also frequently employed in taking notes of lectures, from which they prepare reports. The utility of these occupations is sufficiently obvious to the pupil, and hence they are followed with zest.

\* Old Mortality.

† Milton, in his little work on Education, reprobates the practice of "Forcing the empty wits of children to compose themes, verses, and orations, which are acts of ripest judgment, and the final work of a head filled, by long reading and observing, with elegant maxims and copious invention."—"These are not (he continues) matters to be wrung from children, like blood from the nose, or plucking of untimely fruit."

That such a system of education will not be unfavourable to originality in after life, we have high authority for believing. It was the opinion of Sir Joshua Reynolds, that even in painting, which draws all its learning from outward visible nature, no man can be original to any good purpose, until he has made himself master of what is already known; not in detail, of course, but in principle. "The daily food and nourishment of the mind of an artist (says he) is found in the great works of his predecessors. There is no other way for him to become great himself. *Serpens nisi serpentem comederit non fit draco*, is a remark of a whimsical natural history which I have read, though I do not recollect its title; however false, as to dragons, it is applicable enough to artists."\* If this be true in painting, we are sure it will not be denied in literature.†

\* Reynolds' Works, vol. ii. 12th Discourse, p. 92—100.

† (May, 1825). Six years of additional experience have enabled us better to cope with the difficulties of teaching composition, at least so far as the art can fairly be expected to be acquired at school; and as the reader may have seen, in the second chapter, our practice has been modified accordingly. It now very much agrees with the principles laid down in the following passage from the review of our first edition in the London Magazine: "The uneasiness of the Experimentalist, we, on our part, look upon as groundless; for, starting ourselves from the same point with the Experimentalist and the authority he alleges—viz. that the *matter* of a good theme or essay altogether transcends the reflective powers and the opportunities for observing of a raw schoolboy,—we yet come to a very different practical conclusion. The act of composition cannot, it is true, create thoughts in a boy's head unless they exist previously. On this consideration, let all questions of general speculation be dismissed from school exercises: especially questions of *moral* speculation, which usually furnish the thesis of a school-boy's essay: let us have no more themes on

A taste for the acquirement of knowledge is also powerfully promoted by a careful attention, on the part of the master, to match the difficulties of the

Justice—on Ambition—on Benevolence—on the Love of Fame, &c. : for all theses such as these which treat moral qualities as pure abstractions, are stripped of their *human* interest : and few adults even could write enduringly upon such subjects in such a shape ; though many might have written very pleasingly and judiciously upon a moral case—i. e. on a moral question *in concreto*. Grant that a school-boy has no independent thoughts of any value ; yet every boy has thoughts dependent upon what he has read—thoughts involved in it—thoughts derived from it : but these he will (*ceteris paribus*) be more or less able to express, as he has been more or less accustomed to express them. The unevolved thoughts, which pass through the youngest—the rudest—the most inexperienced brain, are innumerable ; not detached—voluntary thoughts, but thoughts inherent in what is seen, talked of, experienced, or read of. To evolve these, to make them apprehensible by others, and often even to bring them within their own consciousness, is very difficult to most people, and at times to all people : and the power, by which this difficulty is conquered, admits of endless culture : and, amongst the modes of culture, is that of written composition. The true value of this exercise lies in the necessity which it imposes of forming distinct ideas—of connecting them—of disposing them into such an arrangement as that they can be connected—of clothing them in words—and many more acts of the mind, both analytic and synthetic. All that is necessary is—to determine for the young composer his choice of matter : require him therefore to narrate an interesting story which he has formerly read ; to rehearse the most interesting particulars of a day's excursion : in the case of more advanced students, let them read one of the English state trials, where the evidence is of a complex character (as the trials on Titus Oates's plot), or a critical dissertation on some interesting question, or any thing, in short, which admits of analysis—of abstraction—of expansion—or exhibition in an altered shape. Subjects for all this are innumerable ; and, according to the selection made, more or less opportunity is given for collecting valuable knowledge : but this purpose is collateral to the one we are speaking of : the direct purpose is, to exercise the mind in unravelling its own thoughts, which else lie huddled and tangled together in a state unfit for use, and but dimly developed to the possessor's own consciousness."—*Land. Mag. April & May, 1924.*

learner so exactly with his capacity, that he shall not, on the one hand, give up the pursuit from despair; nor on the other, despise a victory obtained without effort. It is difficult to avoid suffering from the operation of these opposite evils at one and the same time; for a progress by far too rapid to suit the heavy pace of one child, will perhaps be too slow for the celerity of another. Our arrangement into classes may seem, at first sight, to be very obnoxious to both these disadvantages; but such is not the case. On the contrary, it furnishes us with the means of adjusting the ratio between a boy's powers and his task, to the greatest possible nicety.

Each of our arithmetical classes, for example, has a certain range, a certain number of arithmetical rules, through which it passes and repasses without ever travelling into any other department. The place which each boy occupies points out to the teacher the state of his advancement; and as soon as he is found competent, he is removed into a higher class. With some boys, it is only necessary to go over the ground once; others travel the same road again and again; no one leaves it before he is thoroughly acquainted with it; and no one stays in it after that acquisition is made.

As arithmetic is commonly studied, it is not practicable, and perhaps not advisable, to put a stop to what is called, in the schoolboy phrase, *cabbaging*; for there must ever be difficulties, which some pupils cannot overcome by their solitary exertions,

and of which no master can possibly find time for separate explanation to each individual. But the copying system, though, perhaps, in ordinary cases necessary, is, nevertheless highly objectionable.

In the first place, it is a breach of the laws, and, becoming habitual, lessens the compunction of the pupil for breaking, not only the law in question, but others. It misleads the teacher, who appor-tions the pupil's task according to a false estimate of his acquisitions. By offering a succedaneum for mental exertion, it gradually destroys all motive to it. By carrying the learner beyond his point of real acquisition, this assistance becomes essential to him in future; for not having the subsidiary information on which his teacher calculates when he sets the task, the boy can by no other means fulfil it. Thus, a dis-ingenuous concealment of the real state of the pupil's mind is not only fostered, but rendered necessary to avoid the disgrace of detection. It would be tedious to recount all the mischiefs which result from this surreptitious removal of difficulties; even when only employed occasionally, its bad effects are neither few nor unimportant. In copying the solution of a problem by wholesale, even the student who is anxious to learn will often remain ignorant of the reasoning on which the operation depends; for when it is at all complex, it can rarely happen that he transcribes the figures into his copy, in the exact order, with respect to time, in which they were set down in the exemplar.

We are also averse from boys being absolutely dependent for explanation upon other boys ; for we have generally found that both he who learns and he who teaches, are satisfied with any information which is sufficient for a particular purpose ; they do not (nor can we wonder that they do not) generalize their views, or enter into such a discussion as shall render future assistance on a similar point unnecessary. Such a conference, if they were able and willing to enter upon it, would, in most schools, be quickly interrupted by a stroke with a cane, as a punishment for disturbing the public silence. The evils of *cabbaging*, in all their many divisions and subdivisions, we are happily rid of, by teaching in classes.

In the lower classical forms, we have, to a limited extent, adopted the mode of teaching by translations. It would be too great a tax upon the time of the general reader, to present him, in detail, our reasons for differing with some eminent men on this point, as it would lead us into a long enquiry respecting the nature of language, and another equally laborious respecting the nature of the human mind itself. At some future period, we hope to be indulged in adding our speculations upon these important points to our little work ;\* until then we shall satisfy ourselves with succinctly showing, that the analogy between copying the solution of an arithmetical prob-

\* This we have done, in chap. iv.

lem, and reading a translation, has been rather hastily formed.

The solution of an arithmetical problem depends solely on the exercise of the reasoning powers; therefore as little assistance as possible ought to be given, in order that these powers may be called forth. But even in science, the most eligible method has been practically found to mingle *example* with *reasoning*, at least in the exercises of the younger students. Language, on the other hand, is for the most part a collection of authorities, or facts, and of course that method by which the pupil can ascertain those facts in the readiest manner, must be, other things equal, the best. Translation is evidently the readiest means, because it gives the pupil a dictionary of the sentence under examination, with the words arranged to his hands. The mischiefs of copying would be much reduced, if the pupil were examined as to his knowledge of each problem, after he had transcribed the solution of it; if he were constrained to explain how each line arose, and how it assisted the progress of the work. This the young linguist is under the necessity of doing by the processes of construing and parsing; for it should be remembered, that in a translation, the original is not rendered word for word; nor is the same order preserved in one language as the other; therefore to enable himself to construe the sentence, the learner must match word against word, with a precision which will require him



to alter many words of the translation, for which purpose he will find it necessary to consult his dictionary; but then he goes to it with some knowledge of what he seeks; instead of ranging through a chaos of contradictory meanings, at a loss which to choose, and astonished that a word, which seems to have such a multiplicity of significations, could ever convey a certain idea. By parsing, too, he is compelled to acquaint himself with the stems of words, in which he is materially assisted by a previous knowledge of their meanings; so that he becomes as familiar with them as he can possibly do by any process, however difficult. But our grand objection to the old plan is, that it furnishes, in its numerous difficulties, a constant excuse for indolence. It is impossible for the master to enter into the boy's mind, and discover whether his ill success proceed from want of power or from want of disposition. We shrink from the danger and cruelty of stimulating a docile and ardent child to a task beyond his powers; we are afraid to lose his confidence in our knowledge of what ought to be expected from him; we are afraid of souring his temper, and uniting painful associations with his task; which may spread over every department of knowledge, and force his thoughts and his tastes into a different, perhaps hostile, course.

After all, we wish it to be clearly understood, that our departure from ancient custom is always made slowly, and with trepidation. Whoever has ventured

upon alterations in any established methods, must have found, that if usage often outlives its original cause, it still more often outlives only the remembrance of it; and they who dig at the foundation of that which is established, with a view of showing its weakness, and hastening its fall, frequently make the unwelcome discovery, that "it is built upon a rock."

We come next to consider the pleasure of success, as an auxiliary in the inducement of a love of knowledge. That no rational being would continue exertions attended only with disappointment, beyond a certain period, will not be denied; and that, until the pupil is fortified with the memory of repeated success, every failure will tend to relax his ardour, is equally obvious.

It is of great importance, then, that the pupil should, very early in life, have an opportunity of tasting this pleasure; and in order to insure so desirable an end, we have been careful to attach rank to excellence in each department; sometimes ranging our pupils in the order of classical attainments; then as mathematicians; then according to manual excellence; and lastly, according to their general conduct and behaviour. Thus each boy, in his turn, attains rank and consideration in that branch of study wherein nature has fitted him to excel, and where comparatively moderate efforts will ensure success. If this were all, if our plan merely served to carry each boy onwards in the path which nature had pointed out for him, we should consider a valua-

ble point to have been gained ; inasmuch as we hold single excellence in higher estimation than various mediocrity.\* But the cause continues to operate. The confidence that exertion will be followed by success, being established in his mind, will cheer him on in other departments of education. Parents are often afraid that a favourite pursuit will be followed by their child with so much ardour as to withdraw his attention from others, which appear to them to be more valuable. It generally happens that the natural volatility of youth soon changes its object ; and then, if what we may denominate the habit of ardour has been induced, it is carried to the new pursuit. But if the love of a certain art or science were indeed so firmly rooted in a boy's mind, as to resist all the charms of novelty and fashion, and all the attacks of satiety, we should shrink from what we could almost call the impiety of dragging him from avocations, to which he must have been destined by an authority to which all human power must submit.

Such instances, however, are very rare : for the most part, the only effect of showing some indulgence

\* This freedom of action is one of the fundamental principles of the system of Pestalozzi :—" L'éducation doit être libre et naturelle, au lieu d'être gênée, contrainte, artificielle, servile, et pour ainsi dire, factice : elle laisse l'enfant se développer en liberté tout entier, et prononcer fortement sa véritable nature." *Espirit de la Methode d'Education de Pestalozzi, par Jullien, tome i. p. 99.*

" Le cours général des études embrasse un assez grand nombre d'objets, mais leur variété même sert à délasser agréablement l'esprit, et laisse aux enfans la liberté de choisir ceux qui ont plus d'analogie avec leurs dispositions naturelles." *Espirit, &c. tome i. p. 83.*

to the predilections of youth, will be, that, in place of uniform listlessness, every task will be performed with spirit; and every branch of learning will be, in its turn, the object of intense avidity. There is always a natural facility for making one acquirement rather than another; and with that the pupil's ardour will commence: but, except in a few instances, the difference of capacity for one study, in preference to another, is but slight, and will gradually waste away before the influence of circumstances. Nor, on the other hand, should it be forgotten by those, who, in their eagerness for one acquisition, despise every other, that in the web of knowledge no thread can be traced, without pointing out something of the course of others. It is an undoubted fact, that no man can acquire great eminence in any one branch of learning, (exact science alone excepted,) who has made that branch the sole object of his attention.

We have now only to dispose of one other means of exciting a love of knowledge, and our task will be drawing to a close. This is to give the pupil clear, vivid, and accurate conceptions.

It is astonishing what interest is at once given to any event, however trifling, if we are acquainted with the place wherein it happened, or the individuals who are the actors in it, though it may very slightly affect their interests; and they are perhaps persons for whom we have but little affection or esteem. Who does not feel happy to realise, by ac-

tual observation, his mental picture of cities and landscapes? Why is it that those who are present sympathise more completely with either the joy or grief of their friends, than those who are absent? It is because interest is produced by vividness of conception; and vividness of conception is in the ratio of proximity to the sensible cause. Thus he who is present at a painful accident, feels more than he who only hears the relation of it from a spectator; and he, again, who has learnt all the circumstances from an eye-witness, will produce more effect in relating the story, than one who has obtained them by a more circuitous route.

From this very simple and well-known truth, the teacher may derive an important lesson. He may learn the advantage of practical illustration: he will find that his time is well employed in showing his pupils many things which he might otherwise think they would as well imagine for themselves. We should advise him to provide himself with the various weights, commonly spoken of, and the measures of content and of length. Let him portion off, upon his play-ground, a land-chain, a rood, and, if the extent be sufficient, an acre. Let his pupils, when they read history, be furnished with maps to trace the *routes* of armies; let them be shown plans of towns, and plates exhibiting the variations of costume which distinguish one people from another: or at least, let them have access to these latter documents (as they might very justly be called) in the library of the school: and then so very delightful is

it to boys to fix and verify their ideas by means of the senses, that much knowledge will be gained in this way by the pupil, without any other care on the part of the master, than to furnish him with the requisite opportunity. Indeed, we have sometimes wondered that instructors have not more fully availed themselves of the multiplicity of little works which the press almost daily issues, to furnish their scholars with a fund of entertainment and useful general knowledge, which has so great a recommendation as that of diffusing itself among them, without calling for exertion on the part of the master.

In treating on the value of accurate conceptions, we must not fail to call the attention of the reader to the importance, in the first years of education, of suffering the pupil to become very familiar with elements. Early youth is the best time for acquiring elementary information. There is a period in life, nor is it a very late one, when the mind begins to revolt against entering upon any branch of knowledge, with which it is entirely unacquainted; and many remain in ignorance who would pursue pleasantly the abstrusities of a science, if they could prevail upon themselves to master its elements. Therefore, since no after-knowledge can be very complete or extensive, which is not built upon a good elementary foundation, we strongly advise parents to be satisfied with somewhat less of superstructure than is generally demanded, while the pupil has yet the power of enabling himself to enlarge his future ac-

quisitions without pain and degradation. To us it appears of infinitely more importance, that education should be sound and complete, than precocious. On the other hand, when the period for elementary education is past, the mind becomes dissatisfied, unless it feels that something efficient is done. It is in vain for the instructor to hope that stimulants, which were powerful at eight or ten years of age, will urge the mind at fifteen. The boy begins to feel that he shall soon be called into another sphere of life, where mere school motives are not in operation. That minute and formal correctness which was so proper at an early age, must now be relaxed; and general and previously-formed habits must be depended upon in its stead. The minutiae of the drill would be out of place on the day of battle. The side of danger is now changed; heretofore the principal care of the teacher was not to overload the mind of his little pupil, lest he should extinguish the feeble and lambent flame of ardour; but now, the fuel may be heaped with no sparing hand. The pupil has acquired a knowledge of his own powers; he has, if we may so speak, learnt the art of learning. He will know whether his obstacles arise from the innate difficulty of the subject, or from want of previous information, which, perhaps, he may have acquired and forgotten. In the latter case, a powerful and excellent motive is furnished for private voluntary application: in the former he has found himself too often successful to fear the contest. But if the

teacher, unaware of this change in the mind of the pupil, irritate him by requiring that mere formal perfection which demands a mind unoccupied with the labour of investigation, he will find, to his astonishment, that the very boys who gave him greatest satisfaction at the outset of their studies, become careless, and perhaps morose, at the time when he had fondly anticipated increased ardour and voluntary co-operation.

And now, having presented our friends with the detail of our system, and with the general principles on which that system is formed, we shall, before we take our leave, say a few words on the sources from which they have been drawn. To the various writers on education, we certainly owe much; for, although they have seldom been acquainted with the *theory* of public education, or those general principles of instruction and government, which may be deduced from a practical acquaintance with great numbers of young people; yet they have treated largely on the end and objects to be pursued. If they have not at all times pointed out the road to perfection, they have often cleared up doubts as to the direction in which it is to be sought. Among those of our own day, whose exertions claim our thanks, a high rank is due to the late Mr. Edgeworth, and to his daughter. To say nothing of Miss Edgeworth's share in the work, especially devoted to the science of education, we have drawn much information, and have been stimulated to very impor-



tant inquiries, by the principles scattered through her Tales and Novels; principles which we always hasten to lay before our pupils, gratefully acknowledging the benefit which enables us to instil them without labour, and so much more effectually than we could have done by any exertions of our own.

If the Greeks paid divine honours to the man who brought down wisdom from the gods to dwell amongst men, surely some reward is due to her, by whose labours the important science of education has been rendered apprehensible, even to children. She has a reward—the most valuable to the virtuous—that of beholding the benefit of her exertions,—of feeling that the great gift of existence has not been bestowed upon her in vain.\*

Respecting the *mechanism* of our school, it might be supposed that we have many obligations to acknowledge; but upon a careful review of the case, we do not find that we owe to others much more than the traditional information which has been afloat in schools, perhaps for ages: this we have systematized to suit our own particular views. We know it is the fashion to assign many of these plans

\* A predilection for the science and practice of education seems to be hereditary among the Edgeworths. The present head of the family has founded a large school, to the conduct of which he most benevolently devotes his time and talents, with a degree of zeal and assiduity which might afford an example to many teachers, whose industry must be stimulated by motives from which this gentleman can derive no part of his energy. We hope to draw very important advantages from the opportunity which we have lately enjoyed of inspecting his establishment.—July, 1821.

to Dr. Bell, and to Mr. Lancaster, and very naturally, indeed we had almost said very properly; for society is perhaps more benefited by the promulgator than by the inventor of an improvement. That these gentlemen have done much we cheerfully admit; but it has been rather by arranging elements into a system, than by discovering those elements. We are hardly aware of having drawn a single improvement from their plans, although we act in concurrence with them in many parts of our system. In many parts we differ from them; but not so much from variance of opinion, as from dissimilarity of object. Their object, and an excellent one it is, must be to furnish the children of the lower classes with such information as is strictly necessary, at the smallest possible cost. With us, cost is an object of minor importance. Neither should we do our duty, by resting satisfied with communicating the mere elements.

In order to avoid expense, the National and Lancasterian Schools are taught by the boys themselves, the master being rather a governor than a teacher. This part of the system is admirably adapted to answer its purpose; but it has essential defects, which render it unfit for general adoption.

As the process of instruction is carried forward by boys, it becomes necessary to mark out the duties of the teacher, with as much minuteness as those of the learner. Indeed, the duties of each must be made perfectly mechanical. There must be no doubt or hesitation on the part of the master or pupil; for

doubt would produce delay and dispute, and consequently throw the whole machine into disorder. Hence there can be no appeal to the reasoning powers; for reasoning never can be reduced to mechanism. From the necessity which exists that all the boys should move exactly together, individual ardour is as much to be discouraged as individual inertness. Every boy must conform to the average motion of the school. In short, the system has all the excellences and all the defects of military discipline. It produces habits of attention, order, and subordination; most valuable qualities to the class of society whose interests it has in view. But it is our object to produce voluntary mental exertion; and we, therefore, cannot think it judicious to subject our pupils to continual restraint. We wish to teach them to educate themselves while we direct their operations. We must teach them to *think*, as well as act; while all that is attempted in favour of the others is to teach them the latter power. In learning elements only, the evils of mere practice will hardly be felt; but when the pupil ventures beyond them, he ought to be prepared with the habit of reasoning. We would not be supposed to make these observations with a wish to depreciate the value of a system, admirably calculated to answer its end; far from it; we wish to show, that having a different end in view ourselves, we should not have been justified in adopting it. We are not only called upon to put the key of knowledge into

the hands of our pupils ; it is our duty to open the cabinet and display its treasures.\*

\* The principle here laid down is almost the only one which a longer experience has led us to renounce, or even to narrow. When the passage in the text was written (Nov. 1818) we had not sufficiently reflected on the utility of employing boys in teaching, with reference to the improvement of the teacher himself ; and we, therefore, gave too much weight to the difficulty of obtaining discretion from boy-teachers : nor had we sufficiently considered that the exercise of discretion, or any thing approaching to it, is so valuable an employment to the learner, that the price ought to be high indeed before it prevents the purchase. We have, therefore, sought out means, and with considerable success, for exercising our pupils in the art of teaching ; but we limit this practice strictly within the bounds of utility to the teacher ; and we also take care to prevent his imperfect judgment and influence from disturbing the machinery of the school.

## CHAPTER IV.

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### ON THE BEST METHOD OF ACQUIRING LANGUAGES.

How many years of life are spent in learning Latin! How much labour, pain, and imprisonment, are endured by the boy!—how much anxious drudgery by the master!—how much disgust of literature is engendered!—how many habits are formed of reluctance to regular employment!—in short, how much misery has been produced, is being produced, and will continue to be produced, in teaching and learning the Latin language? This appears to us to be a very important inquiry; and will, we think, appear so to our readers, after a little consideration.

We sometimes figure to ourselves an inhabitant of another world coming among us, and examining, with an unprejudiced eye, the *value* of our pursuits. If this idle speculation could be realized, who, we should be glad to know, would be Quixotic enough to undertake a defence of the usual course of instruction in Latin? Nobody, certainly. For, in the first place, not two boys out of three who follow it, ever become able to read even the easier classic

authors with fluency. Of these, perhaps, one half, from the painful associations which they have attached to Latin books, never open one after they leave school.\* If we add to the account, as Rousseau would, the numbers who die during the school-boy age, we shall find the list of those who use the knowledge, gained with so much pain to scholar and to master, dwindle into a very small one.

This view of the present state of *scholastic affairs* will afford an apology for our presumption in proposing an alteration. Where plans are good, it may be dangerous to disturb them, even in the possibility of establishing better; but where they are positively and radically bad, the chances of injury are lessened, while those of benefit are increased.

Our attention was first called to the subject by observing, that in the Welsh towns which are frequented by the English, the inhabitants, even the children, speak both languages with fluency; yet Welsh and English are nearly, if not quite as dissimilar as English and Latin. Perhaps, when we consider the number of derivatives from the Latin language which we have in our own, we may pronounce the difference to be greater.

To estimate rightly the attainment made thus casually, and without grammatical instruction, the

\* Lord Byron tells us, in his *Childe Harold*, that he cannot read Horace now, because he was made to read him at school. If Lord Byron, a scholar and a poet, is so harassed by unfortunate associations, as to receive no enjoyment from Horace, we need not wonder at the number of musty Latin books on the shelves of grown persons.

reader must recollect how much more difficult it is to speak than simply to read a language. In order, therefore, to make a fair comparison between the two methods, we should compare the Welsh children, not with school-boys, but with those very few learned men, who, after years of labour, at last acquire a power of speaking Latin with tolerable fluency.

The superiority of the *natural method* (so to speak) of learning languages, is, however, practically acknowledged; for it is, as our readers well know, very common to send students into foreign countries, for the sole purpose of acquiring the languages there spoken; and we never heard of the experiment failing, however small may have been the student's natural capacity for the employment.\*

All this, it will be allowed, is very true, and yet we shall be asked, how it applies to the teaching of a dead language. We are well aware that Latin can-

\* Mr. Edgeworth relates, in his *Memoirs*, a curious anecdote of his eldest son, then a boy about nine years old, strongly illustrating the advantages of the natural method, though Mr. E. himself seems not to have been aware of the principles, which the circumstance developed. They were in France, and the boy's tutor, says the father, "had a French master, to whom he dedicated at least two hours every day. My son was invited, and tempted by various means, to partake of the lessons to which his tutor so assiduously attended; but the boy could never be induced to get by rote the French irregular verbs, or to hear critical remarks on the uses of certain common particles, which strangers are apt to confound and misapply. But, in the mean time, he learnt to speak French fluently, and with good accent; and before his tutor could express his wants at dinner with common accuracy, or indeed before he became intelligible to the people with whom he lived, my son was able to read and converse without hesitation."—*Mem. of R. L. Edgeworth, Esq.*, vol. i. p. 275.

not be taught in the way in which we learn our mother tongue ; but we are also aware, that masters might imitate nature rather more than they do, with great profit to their pupils and great ease to themselves.

It is usual to attribute the extreme facility with which languages are acquired by a residence in the countries where they are spoken, partly to the necessity which the pupil feels for study, and partly to his daily opportunities of hearing the language used by persons who thoroughly understand it. Stimulus to exertion, then, and good models, are the advantages of this mode of instruction, and they are great ones ; but can they not be supplied, at least, in a very considerable degree, in other situations ?

Of the motives to improvement we have already treated at length ;\* and we have shown that no insurmountable obstacle exists, to their all being brought to bear upon the subject of our present examination. We have next to consider how far we can supply good models, or examples ; and here we must confess we have a greater difficulty to overcome.

When the foreign student makes it understood by signs that he is in want, for instance, of a glass of water, and is told how he ought to express himself in the language of the country, the pleasure which he feels in his acquisition, and the vivid associations which are produced in his mind by the reality of the

\* Chap. III.



transaction, assist in fixing the lesson in his memory. The nearest approach that we can make towards placing our pupils in the situation of the foreigner is, to engage them in committing to memory the dramas of the language which they are studying; and this we do: but we are aware that representative conversation does not come home to the feelings, like that which spontaneously arises from the real business of life: because the circumstances, habits, manners, and modes of thinking, of the dramatist, not being those of the student, they cannot present such vivid images to the mind, and of course cannot produce associations of equal force and duration; neither is the language, so committed to memory, furnished at the precise moment when its want is felt.

None but the experienced instructor can properly estimate the importance of creating a wish for information before he supplies it. There is a hunger of the mind as well as of the body, and it is equally necessary to render the mental aliment either palatable or nutritious.

But with all these drawbacks, the acting of plays is a most valuable means of acquiring languages. Even shadows affect the mind, to a certain degree, and consequently strengthen the links of association; besides, many of the objects which are spoken of in the dramatic dialogue, as armour, weapons, chains, dresses, &c., can be brought upon the stage. Many of the actions represented as taking place can be

really performed. Characters are completely separated, in the minds of the pupils, by being assumed by distinct persons. Motive is given for many rehearsals; by which, not only the words are fixed in the memory, but the allusions are gradually discerned and made familiar to the learner. Actors, it has been said, are the best of commentators; and the master will find, that an obscure passage is often cleared to his satisfaction, while teaching the inflections of the voice, and the gestures of the body, requisite for its due effect upon the audience. So that, although this exercise has not all the power of actual conversation, it is very much superior to a drawling repetition-lesson, in which the pupil stammers out his half-learnt words, without affixing to them any ideas, without feeling interest in them; and, consequently, without a chance of preserving them in his recollection.

The ease with which ideas are retained in the memory, when associated with objects of sense, is well known, and has often been pointed out. The recurrence of sounds, which are connected with any event, often recalls the circumstances of it strongly to the mind. A return to the scenes of early youth will awaken recollections which have lain dormant for years: and, with some persons, perfumes, and even objects of taste, have the same power. This great law of our nature has hardly met with due attention in the business of education; it forms, however, the foundation of almost all schemes of artificial

memory, and is the secret by which so many wonders have been wrought.

The magical effects of artificial memory have induced us, at various times, to try if some one of the many plans before the world might not be serviceable in our own school; but, hitherto, our attempts have not been successful.\* The great defect in all the schemes which have come under our notice, is, that the image which the pupil is directed to attach to the words of his lesson is not that naturally raised by them. Thus we recollect, in a work, purporting to be a detail of the system of Professor Feinagle, directions are given for learning Goldsmith's *Hermit*, which begins—

“ Turn, gentle Hermit of the Dale.”

First, the pupil is told to conceive of a large tower, like the Tower of Babel, with a winding ascent on the outside; then, to suppose a hermit standing upon the top of it, “ turning with inconceivable rapidity !”

That it is possible by such a process to commit any number of words to memory, we do not at all doubt. We are equally willing to admit that the pupil “ will as readily repeat them backwards as forwards ;” nay, we go farther, for we think that for all purposes of either pleasure or profit, the backward repetition will be quite as eligible as the forward.

\* Gray's “ *Memoria Technica*” is an exception, but its utility is confined to figures.

The fact is, that these false images entirely drive the true ones out of the mind ; so that, unless it is useful to know mere idle words without any real signification, nothing is learned by this process. Yet after all, it may be doubted whether the topical system, or that of associating ideas with places, may not be useful, when the subject itself is not necessarily connected with imagery of its own. On this latter question we speak with diffidence ; but of the impolicy of substituting false imagery for true, we have a more confident opinion.

We have wandered thus far from our subject, in order to show, even by these (as we conceive) mistaken systems, the power of sensible ideas on the mind. The lesson which we have drawn from a consideration of the different plans of artificial memory, that have at various times come under view, is, that although it is not politic to load the minds of children with false imagery, it is highly important for them never to commit a passage to memory, or if possible, even to read it, without gaining an accurate conception of its real and natural associations.

With this view, we strongly recommend instructors to supply themselves, when teaching the classics, with ancient maps and plans, and with plates or drawings of ships, temples, houses, altars, domestic and sacred utensils, robes, and of every object of which they are likely to read. A classical garden, too, or a collection of plants and shrubs mentioned

by the poets, would be a desirable accession to a school ; nor would a collection of models of ancient warlike machinery be less useful.

It is impossible to calculate the injury which the minds of children suffer from the habit of receiving imperfect ideas. It gradually weakens, and in some instances destroys, the powers, both of reasoning and imagination : the reasoning powers—because reasoning is the act of comparing ideas with ideas, which must evidently stop for want of materials, if those ideas are so shadowy as not to have “ a local habitation and a name ” in the pupil’s mind : the powers of imagination—because imagination is the act of forming ideas into new combinations, which is equally impossible, unless they have distinct shapes and definite forms.

To return to our imitation of the method by which a foreigner learns languages. We have attempted to show, that the two great advantages of stimulus, and the opportunity of imitating good models, which are so much insisted upon in the case of foreigners, may, to a certain extent, be enjoyed at home ; but there is another advantage, rarely adverted to, which requires a very careful consideration.

A child and a foreigner learn synthetically : they are told, for instance, that a certain building which they inhabit is called a house ; this fact is, by association, firmly fixed in their minds ; the child considers it a proper name, for with children, all names

are at first proper ; and so would the foreigner, if he had not already learnt how to generalize in his own language : he is, however, aware that it is generic, and uses it according to the analogy to which he has been accustomed ; but he does not trouble himself with all the restrictions and extensions of the genus ; he does not, for instance, learn on the same day, and at the same time, that certain houses are called cottages, and certain others palaces ; nor is he reminded, that a family, a commercial establishment, and sometimes a council of legislators, are called a house ; but the idea is left to settle itself in his memory, before it receives these little modifications ; and when he finds that the word house has another meaning, he at the same time has some new association given to him, which fixes the subsidiary fact as firmly in his memory as the first. The child is obliged to learn altogether thus ; but the foreigner may turn to his dictionary, and find all the meanings of the word ; and as he does not do this until he has felt the want of the information of which he is in search, he seizes it with eagerness, and preserves it without difficulty. It is the same with the inflexions of words. A foreigner (and, indeed, a child, after he has begun to generalize,) will inflect all his words regularly ; but, when he has made a few mistakes, he will thank you for a grammar, and esteem a complete list of exceptions a great prize.\*

\* The intelligent instructor must often have observed, in teaching a boy the rules and exceptions of a grammar, that he learns to con-

This appears to us to be the natural way of learning; and we think, that if our readers carefully retrace the history of their own minds, they will find that the greater part of knowledge is gained in the same manner; that is, by learning particulars, and then arranging those particulars into classes; for we find, that even those who begin to teach by means of rules, always add an example, which (as far as our own experience goes) is more depended upon for conveying instruction than the rule itself.

Thus, the principle of what we contend for is conceded, and all the difference between the system which we advocate, and that in common use, is, that we would store the mind of the learner with many examples, before we call upon him to classify them, and deduce from them rules and general principles. The disposition to generalize soon arises in the mind; and if the teacher were careful not to give his pupil a rule, until he was sure that the boy must have felt the want of one, it would be eagerly acquired, and readily apprehended; nor would he have so often to reproach his pupil with the faultiness of his memory.

sider both as of equal importance to be remembered; or perhaps, indeed, the exceptions, as they occupy the largest space in the book, will have the superiority: in learning from practice (and using the grammar only as a book of reference), as he must meet with many more words following the rule than deviating from it, the proper order of importance is preserved. In the list of exceptions, we often find words, which a student might have read the classic authors for years without encountering: surely a knowledge of them, and their inflexions, ought not to be put on a level in his mind with that of a general rule.

Rules and definitions are useful, rather for correcting acquirements, than for making them originally. No one, we presume, who had never heard of a straight line, would be much edified by the definition of Archimedes, that it is the shortest which can be drawn between two points; nor do we think that any judicious teacher would give such an enigmatic answer to an inquiring child. He would show him *examples* of straight lines; first, perhaps, he would draw one upon paper; then he would point out the edges of the furniture, leading him to generalize his ideas for himself, and to deduce the abstract notion from the variety of modes, in which the concrete appears. After a time, when the child knew perfectly well what a straight line was, this definition might be given him, as furnishing a means by which he might try whether a line which appeared to be straight was so in reality.

Our first care, then, should be to store the minds of our pupils with individual facts; when that is done, the desire for arranging them into classes, and deducing from them general rules, will arise of itself, and may be turned to great account in perfecting and refining the knowledge previously acquired.

We have already seen how the *facts* of language are acquired by the foreign student, and we have recommended one means (the performance of dramas) by which the advantages enjoyed by the foreigner, may be, to some extent, participated in by the school-



boy; but it is evident, that the power of acting dramas presupposes some knowledge of the language in which they are written. Now this previous knowledge is in no way so readily gained as by the use of translations, which present the student with a dictionary of both words and phrases, arranged in the order in which he wants them. The very facility, however, which translations afford, has made them enemies. It has been supposed by many writers, that they make boys lazy, give them superficial knowledge, encourage a disposition for depending upon extraneous assistance, and, by withdrawing all difficulties, produce but a transitory impression on the memory.\* These are serious charges; and, if they could be proved, would effectually prevent translations from being used by any honest teacher; but have they not been allowed without sufficient examination?

As to the charge of producing indolent habits—it is easily answered. We teach by the process of *constructing*, and, therefore, even with the translation before him, the scholar will have a task to perform, in matching the English, word by word, with the language which he is learning; nor will he find either dictionary or grammar unnecessary to him, as he will often have to change the words of the translation for others more literal. The teacher will thus have an opportunity of exciting a desire to consult the dic-

\* Knox, Barrow, Burton, Goldsmith, Edgeworth, Valpy, Joyce, Carpenter, Shepherd.

tionary and the grammar, by making his pupils feel their utility.

Grammar, as a science, ought to be taught with reference to that language which the student best understands ; because it is the art of arranging particular facts into rules, as general, and as free from exceptions, as the irregularities of language will permit ; and, therefore, if our previous reasoning has been correct, it ought not to be studied until these facts, or at least a great number of them, are in the mind. But the science of grammar being once well understood by the pupil, he may and will apply his knowledge, so as to be soon able to consult the grammar-book of any language with pleasure and profit. Neither do we disapprove of the pupil's learning by heart all the *paradigms* which are models to a great number of instances ; but, even in this case, we would rather he should have felt the want of such a general rule, before he is supplied with it.

Our readers must be apprised, that we have here laid down the points to which we are gradually tending, rather than those which we have yet reached. We must confess, that however strong are our convictions, we leave the beaten path with hesitation, always reflecting on the heavy responsibility under which we aberrate from the received modes of education. We have, however, for a long time been gradually approximating our practice to this theory, and always with success. We have, too, the highest authority and precedent for our encouragement.

Locke advises the teacher, who cannot speak the language with his pupil (he is giving directions for private instruction), "to take some easy and pleasant book, such as Æsop's fables, and write the English translation, made as literal as may be, in one line, and the Latin words, which answer each of them, just over it, in another. These let him read every day over and over again, till he perfectly understands the Latin, and then go on to another fable, till he be also perfect in that; not omitting what he is already perfect in, but sometimes reviewing that, to keep it in his memory. And, when he comes to write, let these be set him for copies; which, with the exercise of his hand, will also advance him in Latin. This being a more imperfect way than talking Latin unto him, the formations of the verbs first, and afterwards the declensions of nouns and pronouns, perfectly learned by heart, may facilitate his acquaintance with the Latin tongue.

"More than this of grammar I think he need not have, till he can read *Sanctii Minerva* with Scioppius and Perizonius's notes."\*

Queen Elizabeth, of whose learning we have such ample evidence, "never took (says her tutor, Ascham,) yet Greek nor Latin grammar in her hand, after the first declining of a noun or a verb."†

\* Education, sec. 167.

† Schoolmaster, book ii. "This work (says Dr. Johnson), perhaps, contains the best advice ever given for the study of languages."  
—*Life of Ascham.*

The children, Baratier, Chateaubriant, and Hein-ecker, whose early knowledge of languages excited the astonishment of even the learned, were none of them indebted for their extraordinary attainments to the rules of grammar.

If a modern authority is required, we may take that of Pestalozzi, whose system of education is exciting so much attention throughout Europe.

“ On doit étudier une langue comme un *art pratique*, et non comme une science. De même que l’art pratique est antérieur aux théories, que la matière existe avant l’ouvrage, et l’objet avant la copie ou la représentation de l’objet : de même aussi, l’art de parler existe et doit être appris avant la science de la langue. Au lieu de chercher à composer une langue à l’aide des règles, il faut l’apprendre en détail et s’élever successivement du particulier au général. Par la méthode pratique on obtient facilement les résultats que la règle a en vue mais qu’elle ne peut donner.” \*

Another of the charges against the use of translations is, that they encourage a taste for extraneous assistance. But must not that be inevitably the case in all study of *facts*? Can any mode be devised by which the pupil shall *reason* himself into the knowledge of language? If all methods of acquiring languages are dependent upon authorities, surely that which presents the readiest means of

\* *Esprit de la Methode d’Education de Pestalozzi.* Par Jullien, tome ii. p. 49.

applying to those authorities must be the best. But it would be just as reasonable to say that a student, who had learnt Latin by the aid of translations, would always stand in need of them, as to maintain that a child would, throughout his life, require to be prompted by his nurse, because she had originally taught him to speak, by imitating the sounds which she uttered. There is no reason, however, that a translation should be used after the pupil has acquired a sufficient knowledge of the language to read it with some degree of fluency : whenever the pupil is able to gather the general meaning of a passage without the aid of his grammar-book and dictionary, he ought to lay aside the translation ; because then he will not have to expend much time in recurring to those books ; and when he does open them, he will know pretty exactly what is the object of his search.

Great stress is laid by some authors on the strong impressions produced on the mind by difficulties ; and it is true, that a relation does exist between the force of an impression, and its effects on the memory ; but there are some other consequences of great difficulties, which also have to be taken into consideration. In the first place, in order to produce the good effect which is ascribed to them, they must be overcome by the pupil himself ; and, if they are above his strength, how is that to be accomplished ? Is there not some danger (and is it not true in point of fact), that in the ordinary method many difficul-

ties are not surmounted? Are they not, after keeping the pupil in idleness, and in a frame of mind the most unfavourable to improvement, evaded by surreptitious help? Of the ill consequences of such aid we have heretofore expressed ourselves at length.\*

Again, as far as our experience goes, moderate efforts often repeated, avail more in education, than violent exertions which must of necessity be less frequent, and which cannot be produced without great and oftentimes dangerous stimulants. The objectors to translations always argue as if the task must necessarily be of the same length, whether the pupil be allowed a translation or not. This, as Mr. Clark justly observes, is a mere assumption.† There can be no reason why a greater quantity is not required from a boy when his facilities for accomplishing his task are increased; and we are inclined to think that a morning employed in easy, regular labour, will be more productive than the same time partly consumed in painful researches, partly wasted in the indolence of despair, and partly spent in cajoling his more able school-fellows for assistance.

The opponents of what we call the natural method of teaching language, have another argument on

\* Chap. III.

† See the Preface to Clark's editions of the school classics. This is the only valuable part of the books; for the baldness and vulgarity of the translations render them almost inadmissible. ex. gr.—*Ambages* he renders in one place *long-winded fetches*, and in another, *a cock-and-bull story*! We also dislike his plan of printing the translation on the same page with the text, as it offers the pupil a temptation to avail himself of its assistance at the time of going through his task.

which they greatly rely. Latin and Greek, say they, are not acquired so much for their utility in after-life, as for the advantage which the mental faculties receive in studying them; the employment they furnish to the memory, the scope they offer to the invention, and the exercise they give to the reasoning powers. With respect to the memory, we have the advantage, for we appeal to it more than our opponents; at least, in the early stages. With respect to invention and reason, we think it better to begin by employing them on subjects which are more exclusively their province. One of the first exercises of the power of reasoning consists in tracing analogies. A child is soon aware that there is an agreement between *ask* and *asked*, and *love* and *loved*. Having ascertained this agreement, he then, by the power of invention, which proceeds at first in the same track, applies his knowledge to the inflection of some other verb with which he is acquainted: if he be fortunate enough to meet with one of regular formation, he is confirmed in the truth of his deductions, and has learnt an important lesson; but if he meet with an irregular verb, and learn that in saying *telled* instead of *told* he is *doing wrong*, how is he to know the fact, that the rule of logic, by which he made the deduction, is not erroneous, but that mankind have not been equally philosophical with himself?

Thus, it is clear that every child, even in learning to speak its native tongue, must impair its confidence

in the exercise of two of the noblest faculties of man, —reason and invention.

How are the courage and enterprize (if we may so express ourselves) of these powers to be restored? By following a similar course of proceeding to that which produced the injury? Or by engaging them in pure science, where all the rules are without exceptions, and where the mind may be accustomed to long chains of deduction?

We are of opinion that the mathematics are the best field for the exercise of these powers; that it is to arithmetic, geometry, and algebra, (which may be studied at a much earlier age than is usually imagined,) that we ought to look for the education of reason and invention. Not that we are unwilling to grant, that to these powers *in their strength*, there is much room for exertion in studying the philosophy of language: but, as we have before said, the philosophy of a language can hardly be studied with advantage, until the student is acquainted with the facts of it.

Mathematical problems admit of such complete and undoubted answers; they are capable of such exact arrangement; and the solutions of them so certainly follow a due investigation, that is to say, toil and success are so nearly in proportion to each other, that the student forms insensibly the habit of patient labour: but, in studying the classic authors, the pupil has no gradation of difficulties, or at best a



very imperfect one ; nor does he know, when he encounters a hard passage, whether it is capable of a satisfactory answer ; or whether it is a subject of contention among scholiasts and commentators. The unavoidable consequence of this uncertainty is to disincline him for putting forth his strength ; for it is in the very nature of man to mete out exertion by the probability of success ; hence, we are of opinion, that an early pursuit of exact science would be extremely useful, with a view to acquiring habits, which, though they are rarely formed in classic studies, are of no slight value in them.

There only remains to consider that state of the pupil's progress in a language, in which he reads it with tolerable fluency, and in which he has committed much of it to memory. He will then be in possession of a *copia verborum*, and of that *tact* by which he appreciates idiom : this must now be improved, and raised in some degree into a science, by a classification of the analogies and differences which it detects. In our opinion, the best method of effecting this purpose is that recommended by Crassus, by Cicero, and by Pliny the Younger, among the ancients ; and practised with so much success by Roger Ascham among the moderns ;—the method of double translations. The advantage of this method is, that the learner first gains a general feeling of the style of his author, by translating him into his native tongue, which lessens the difficulty of the re-translation ; and

he is furnished with a model, with which he may compare his own efforts.

We do not hope to convince all, or even many, of the advocates of the received system, that our plan is more eligible than theirs;—we shall be satisfied, if they perceive that we have not adopted ours through love of ease, but from a sincere conviction of its accordance with the principles of the human mind.

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WE have lately\* met with a “French English Grammar by N. G. Dufief, Paris, 1817,” which, we believe, has been reprinted in England, under the title of “Nature Displayed in her Mode of Teaching Languages.” The method which M. Dufief has adopted is, to give the student a great number of phrases to learn by heart, intermixing a few grammatical rules and observations. This is a book of considerable merit, and the author has some very correct ideas on the proper use of grammar. “Grammarians,” says he, “have continually confounded *grammar* with *language*, and *vice versâ*. This strange perversion of ideas has been the cause of their ill success all over the world. Instead of boasting of teaching language by grammar, (which was, in fact, placing the cart before the horse,) they should have said they taught grammar by language.”—*Introduction*, p. 23.

\* Written in 1821.

“ The rules of grammar, or the particular principles of a language, are only a collection of observations upon custom. It follows, hence, that the knowledge of custom, or of a language, which is the same thing, ought to precede the knowledge of rules ; for otherwise those rules must stand only for observations upon nothing at all ! ” — *P. 34.*

“ The preceding remarks will probably induce many to ask, ‘ What are grammars good for, since they are useless to the acquisition of language ? ’ Happy to join in opinion with the great Locke, and Condillac, I reply, that grammatical information will be found useful principally to those who, being already acquainted with a language sufficiently for the general purposes of society, are still desirous of obtaining a more critical knowledge of it.” — *P. 36.*

These observations prove that M. Dufief has shaken off the fetters of the old system ; and so far he has done well. We agree with him too in the importance which he attaches to phraseology, though not exactly for the reasons he assigns. “ The reason,” says he, “ of teaching a language by phrases, and not by single words, is obvious ; the name of a thing merely recalls the object to the mind, but it can neither express an action performed by it, nor convey an idea relative to it. A word, therefore, that expresses no thought or action has no force by itself, and only serves as a link in the chain that makes up a phrase or complete sense.” — *P. 23.*

This is not very conclusive. It appears to us,

that the main reason why unconnected words are not remembered well, is, because the ideas are too abstract. Suppose the reader saw these words, "*un—le—couché—à—était—lynx—arbre—un—de—pied,*" what precise meanings could he possibly attach to them? we do not mean in conjunction, for they can have no union, but separately. We pass over the connectives, of which it is hardly possible to form any idea, when they stand alone. We say nothing indeed of any words but the substantives, which happen to be all the names of natural objects; but is not the reader at once aware that even these words, which are the most independent of combination, supply but very faint ideas to his mind? Once, however, reduce the chaos to order, and a wonderful effect will be produced. "*Un lynx était couché au pied d'un arbre.*" Here, instead of a *lynx* moving, standing still, or attacking his prey, as the mind chose to wander over the moods which the idea is capable of taking, it is tied down to one — "*couché au pied d'un arbre.*" It is the same with the other words; the mind could not make to itself any definite picture of the idea conveyed by the word *pied*, because it did not know whether it was the foot of a man, a dog, a bird, a mountain, a page, a deed, a table, &c. &c. ad infinitum. Now, when it is known to be the foot of a tree, the whole phrase becomes a picture, in describing which every word has some definite office; and this by a well-known law of the human mind, is necessary both to create interest

and to secure remembrance. Association also brings its magical power to bear upon the memory : no wonder then, with all these helps, that words in phrases are better remembered than when they stand alone. Another reason why an acquaintance with unconnected words, even if it afforded precise ideas to the mind, would not supply the place of a knowledge of phrases, is, that the great difficulty of a language consists, not so much in the acquisition of its words, as in their due arrangement in such order as may conform to what is called its *genius*.

But why stop at phrases ? All the arguments in favour of teaching phrases, go to prove that we should proceed to sentences, and from them to whole pieces. To proceed with the fable from which we have quoted, "*il aiguissait ses dents*." Here we have another touch to the picture ; our ideas are become more exact ; the mind, by being kept longer on the object, has contracted an acquaintance with it of great importance to the memory ; and thus the ties of association are drawn more closely about it.

The author's reasons against extending the principle do not appear to us to carry any weight. "There is no necessity," says he, "for beginning to read authors very early, for by learning the vocabularies in the manner we have proposed, we learn the three things which constitute the knowledge of a language ; to understand, speak, read or write it. Application to books, suited to the taste of a pupil, will divide his attention—which should be wholly

devoted to committing to memory the practical part—and, from the trouble in learning the phrases, especially in the beginning, will create a distaste to them. Merely to read good writers is a very circuitous, ineffectual, and faulty method of learning a language, unless supported by such a method as we recommend: for, supposing the learner already acquainted with pronunciation, the same word must occur in books a great many times, before it can be retained in the mind for the ready purposes of conversation. The reason of this is obvious; the words expressing the ideas of the writer are not presented phrase by phrase in an analytical manner, as they are in the practical part of the following work, but *en masse*, occurring only by hazard amidst those necessary for expressing the ideas of the author, whose design in writing was not to teach a language. Hence, it happens, that being directed to many words at once, the attention is so weakly fixed on each of them, that the mind cannot remember any particular one, unless it have been presented many times.”—*Introduction*, p. 27.

M. Dufief, we see, complains that the perusal of books, suited to the taste of the pupil, is a more pleasant occupation than committing his phrases to memory, and therefore wishes that the pupil's attention should not be divided by having these books put into his hands. In the very statement of the case, M. Dufief admits his plan to labour under a disadvantage—the inclination of the pupil is against him.

But this fact would be very difficult to account for, if it were true that in reading books, "the attention, by being directed to so many words at once, is so weakly fixed on each of them, that the mind cannot remember any particular one, unless it have been presented many times," because the same indistinctness which obstructs improvement would preclude entertainment. No state of mind is less allied to pleasure than distraction and uncertainty. We should like to know, also, why the mind is to be directed to many words *at once*; it can seldom be necessary, at least in the French language, to direct the attention to more than a phrase at a time, and if that is too great an effort, what becomes of M. Dufief's own system? With respect to the necessity for reiteration, which M. Dufief insists upon, does he forget, that in reading a book the same word is presented to the mind of the student many times? It is true, if he have to search for it in the dictionary, much time must be expended, but we would give him a translation, until the number of words of which he was ignorant was comparatively small. M. Dufief also overlooks this great advantage, that the words are reiterated, and therefore learnt, in the order of importance. Those, of which the pupil will have greatest need, will be most frequently offered to his attention. Neither ought it to be forgotten, that, although the words are repeated very often, they do not occur always in the same sense; every time they may take a new shade of

meaning : we must always bear in mind that they have a very chameleon-like property ; they must be seen many times, and in many lights, before we are acquainted with all their hues. It is only thus that we can " attain the whole extension of language, distinguish all the delicacies of phrases, and all the colours of words."\*

The knowledge of the literature of a language is, in our eyes, a matter of more importance than it seems to be to M. Dufief. In the study of the learned languages, almost the sole end is to give the pupil a more complete possession of classic literature than he could possibly gain by merely reading translations ; and, in our opinion, it is no small advantage of the plan, which we have adopted, that it enables him to attain the great object of his toil at an early age, when all that he reads remains with him for life. We regret that the mere words of the exercise-books occupy any place in our memory, which might have been filled by the rich matter of antiquity.

In the living languages, it is true, literature is not every thing ; the student must learn to speak as well as to read ; but it does not follow that, because insulated phrases are not learnt by rote, the memory should remain entirely without exercise. Let the teacher avail himself of the drama. We need not repeat at length our reasons for believing that much

\* Johnson.



time will be well spent on compositions in the dramatic form ; we shall, however, just observe that, in such an employment of his time, the master will enjoy the willing co-operation of his pupil,—no slight advantage in any branch of education, but more especially valuable in appeals to the memory. No habit is more effectual in preserving the recollection of what has been learnt, than those involuntary mental repetitions, which we so often make of passages from which we receive pleasure. But no one ever fed his mind upon lists of phrases, or awoke from a reverie where he had “ forgot himself to marble,” in ruminating on the beauties of the exercise-book.

It is hardly necessary to insist on the utility of storing the memory with the style of the classic writers. It is impossible to conceive a better means of becoming imbued with a taste for elegant literature, or of acquiring the tact, so necessary to enable the student to write the learned languages, with any chance of success. We hope it will be seen by the intelligent reader, that all our plans tend to give such a familiarity with the great models of style, as must put the scholar in possession of important advantages, when the age for original composition arrives.

We speak from experience, when we say that pronunciation is studied with much greater care and anxiety in preparing for recitation, than on any other plan of proceeding. The pupil has an ulterior

object for his exertions to fix upon. It is not sufficient that he pronounce well enough to go through his lesson ; he must be understood by his auditory, and pass the ordeal of their criticism. Nor must it be forgotten, that this motive operates on the teacher. In so arduous a task as that of instruction, a little stimulus will not be thrown away on the master as well as the scholar. There are temptations enow to indolence on all sides.

We begin with dialogues upon familiar topics, thence rising to scenes from standard authors. For obvious reasons, we seldom take whole plays, especially in the French language.

We have hitherto omitted to say much respecting one of our methods of teaching language, which has been for some time gaining ground with us. We allude to the practice of extemporaneous construing, which now employs several hours of the day. A class opens at a passage with which the pupils are unacquainted, and they attempt to construe it, the master assisting them in their difficulties ; not confining himself to the mere translation of obscure phrases, but intermingling explanations, and also such information as boys ought to find in the notes to their school-books, but which, as far as our experience goes, is seldom to be met with.

We have been delighted to discover a great resemblance between our method of extemporaneous construing,\* and that practised in teaching Latin, when

\* Vide page 127.

it was the literary language of Europe. There is an interesting dissertation on the subject of teaching language in the *Encyclopédie*, art. *Etudes*. The writer cites *Le Febvre*, *Fleury*, *Rollin*,\* *Du Marsais*, and *Pluche*, as authorities in favour of the plan of *explication*, by which we understand construing, or translating with the assistance of a master, who supplies the unknown words as they arise. *Le Febvre*, the father of *Madame Dacier*, had a son of great promise, who seems, as well as his sister, to have been taught altogether by this process, which was commenced when he was ten years of age. The boy died at fourteen, but even then he was able, says his father, "to read fluently the most difficult authors, both Latin and Greek." The writer goes on to speak of the antiquity of this method.

"Aussi la methode qu'indiquent ces savans étoit proprement la seule usitée pour apprendre le Latin, lorsque cette langue étoit si répandue en Europe qu'elle y étoit presque vulgaire; au temps par exemple de Charlemagne et de S. Louis. Que faisoit-on pour lors autre chose que lire ou expliquer les auteurs? N'est ce pas de là qu'est venu le mot de *lecteur* pour dire *professeur*? et n'est ce pas enfin ce qu'il faut entendre par le *prælectio* des anciens Latinistes? Terme qu'ils employent perpétuellement

\* It is but common candour to admit that *Rollin* (vide *Manière d'étudier les belles lettres*, tome i. p. 15,) would begin by grammar, but then he would confine it to a knowledge of declensions and conjugations, and a few plain rules. To the works of *Du Marsais*, *Fleury*, *Le Febvre*, and *Pluche*, we have not access.

pour designer le principal exercice de leurs écoles, et qui ne peut signifier autre chose que l'explication des livres classiques.—Voyez les colloques d'Erasme.

“ D'Ailleurs il n'y avoit anciennement que cette voie pour devenir Latiniste; les dictionnaires Français-Latins n'ont pas paru que depuis environ deux cent ans : avant ce temps là il n'étoit pas possible de faire ce qu'on appelle *un theme* ; et il n'y avoit pas d'autre exercice de latinité que la lecture ou l'explication des auteurs. Ce fut pourtant comme dit M. le Febvre, ce fut ce methode si simple qui produisit les Budés, les Turnebes, les Scaligers. Ajoutons que ce fut ce methode que produisit Madame Dacier.”

The plan of instruction by Condillac, in his education of the Prince of Parma, was very similar to that which we have followed :—“ Jusqu' alors nous avons toujours fait ces sortes des lectures ensemble, et je ne lui avois pas laissé la fatigue et l'ennui de chercher dans un dictionnaire la signification des mots. Alors je le chargeai de se préparer seul à traduire quelques vers de Virgile. Il commença par l'Enéide qu'il trouva facile et dont il traduisit les six premiers chants.”—*Cours d'Etudes pour l'instruction du Prince de Parma.*—*Motif des Etudes.*

It is impossible for a teacher to read the following observations of this able writer too often. “ S'il est utile de laisser à un enfant des difficultés à surmonter, il ne faut pas le dégoûter par des obstacles ou trop multipliés ou trop grands; et toute l'attention

doit être de proportionner les difficultés à ses forces et ne lui en présenter jamais qu'une à la fois."—  
"Rien n'est plus inutile que de fatiguer un enfant en chargeant sa mémoire des règles d'une langue qu'il n'entend pas encore. Qu'importe en effet qu'il sache ses règles par cœur s'il ne lui est pas possible d'en faire l'application?"—*Motif des Etudes.*

The present cheapness of books has enabled us to combine the principle on which the linguists of the middle ages taught, with that of practical instruction. When books were so scarce, as to render a statute necessary to prohibit the students at Oxford from keeping possession of a work in the public library for more than an hour at a time, it was impossible to provide every pupil with a separate copy of the book to be studied. It must, therefore, have been necessary that the teacher should go through the process of construction himself; while his pupils, unless they repeated the words as he uttered them (which might have been the case), must have sat inactive. With us, of course each boy has as good an opportunity of consulting the text as the teacher; who may, therefore, refrain from any further interference than is necessary to supply the information of which his pupils stand in need. Every day increases our conviction that no exercise can be put into competition with this, for the rapidity with which it extends the pupil's vocabulary, and renders him familiar with the idiom of the language; while from the capacity which it gives him of reading his author

without the irksome slowness of the common method, he feels a high degree of interest in his employment.

Long experience has so confirmed and strengthened our conviction of the high value of this exercise, that it has for years been gradually gaining ground with us, until it is at length become the great staple of the school. We are thus enabled to go through much more of an author than is usually done, without encroaching on the pupil's time. We strongly deprecate the plan of merely dipping into an author and leaving him for another, before the scholar has had time to acquire a taste for his beauties, or even to become sufficiently acquainted with his style to read him with any tolerable ease.

The works of the classic writers have been so completely interwoven into modern literature, and the allusions to them are so frequent, that even if they were not inestimable models of taste, yet merely considered as a key to the right understanding of later works, they offer, perhaps, the shortest and certainly the safest means that can be devised for accomplishing the purpose. It is, therefore, an object of great anxiety with us, that our pupils should have a more complete knowledge of the subject-matter of classic literature than is generally attained at school; and this furnishes us with another reason for bending so much exertion both on the part of teacher and pupil, to enable the latter to seize his author's meaning with quickness and certainty.

We have found that boys who have been taught by this mode, do not readily fall into absurd readings; they have learnt not to rest satisfied without fetching out the real meaning of a passage; and their recollection of what has preceded it, not having been disturbed by the intervention of difficulties, which have required time to surmount, preserves them, by the force of the context, from falling into very gross errors. Some time ago, a young gentleman, fifteen years of age, of fair talents, who had been for some time reading Virgil, was brought to the school, and was examined in the first eclogue. His version of the second line was as follows:—" *Tenui*, I have held, *sylvestrem musam*, the rustic wood nymph, *avená*, on the musical instrument, *meditaris*, of meditation." Our initiatory examinations would often furnish instances of perversions equally ludicrous.

As soon as the boys are fitted mentally and morally for such an undertaking, they read an author in private. The advantage of this exercise is obvious. The experienced instructor well knows that with young persons much more time is necessarily spent in ascertaining that the pupil has learnt than in teaching him. When, therefore, he can be trusted to decide the point for himself, all the time spent in determining it will remain at disposal; and may be advantageously employed in very minute examinations of such passages as the pupil may find beyond his strength.

In construing an author, much time is also ex-

pendent in seeking for English words, to express ideas which the learner has already gathered from the original; this, though a most important exercise as regards his improvement in his own tongue, has not only the disadvantage just mentioned, of taking up his time, but it prevents him from acquiring the valuable habit of receiving the ideas, conveyed by the foreign language, without any reference to his own. So long as he continues to receive the ideas expressed in one language, through the medium of another; or even to connect, however remotely, the ideas belonging to the former with the words of the latter, so long will they be tinged with a strange idiom; and while his mind is in this state, it will be idle to expect him to speak or write the language which he studies, with any degree of purity. But, without reference to any further view than that of becoming thoroughly acquainted with the literature of a language, the power of understanding it without the process of translation is very valuable. Until that is attained, no one reads for amusement, nor at all times with perfect comprehension. The connexion between one part and another is often lost, unless the reader is able to unite them rapidly together. Translation, even though carried on mentally, prevents him from losing himself in his author, and being carried away by the stream of his subject. These reasons have led us to attach great importance to the exercise under consideration; and we are anxious to employ our pupils in it as soon as



we have well ascertained their fitness for the occupation. That it ought not to be attempted in a very early stage of a boy's progress, is evident: if he encountered frequent obscurities, the connexion of the different parts would be so broken, that it would be impossible for him to collect his author's meaning: without practice he would frequently suppose himself to be in possession of the true construction of a passage, when he had made a gloss which to a more informed eye was clearly false. One error undetected would lead to another, and the pupil would soon lose himself in doubt and confusion.

Neither would it be right to subject his integrity to so severe a temptation as would be held out by indolence, where the labour demanded from him would be so great, and the means of estimating his exertions must be so scanty. The moral and the physical man begin existence in the same weakness, and acquire strength by the same slow degrees; nor is less care necessary to the one than to the other, to preserve the constitution unbroken by early exposure to hardship.

By waiting patiently until what appears to us to be the due time for entering on this important stage, we have, besides the advantage of making it a long-desired step in rank, the power of uniting it in its proper place to our plan of self-education. The exercise under consideration seems to be the obvious link of connexion between that which is taught and that which is acquired originally. While it allows

more freedom of action than is consistent with the necessary forms of public instruction, it also requires more capacity for self-government, more unwatched industry, more invention, more perseverance, and more discretion. But while it requires these powers previously to exist—and that in no small degree—it cultivates and strengthens them, until at length even the qualified assistance and superintendence which the plan supposes may be altogether withdrawn; and the pupil, on leaving the school, instead of having his future character endangered by that sudden disruption of motives and habits, which too frequently follows this great epoch in life, will find his mind quite prepared for a change, which will so slightly affect him.

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For adding the following extract from the often-quoted article in the London Magazine, we offer no apology to the reader; feeling well assured that, after he has read it, he would expect us to shew rather why we had retained our own matter, than why we had inserted this.

“ Can any boy reconcile himself to the loathsome effort of learning ‘ *Propria quæ maribus* ’ by any the dimmest sense of its future utility? No, we answer with the Experimentalist: and we go farther even than the Experimentalist is disposed to do (p. 98); for we deny the existence of any future utility. We, the reviewer of this book, at eight years of age, though even then passionately fond of study and disdainful of childish sports, passed some of the most wretched and ungenial days of our life

in "learning by heart," as it is called, (oh! most ironical misnomer) *Propriæ quæ maribus*, "*Quæ genus*," and "*As in præsentî*," a three-headed monster worse than Cerberus: we *did* learn them *ad unguem*; and to this hour their accursed barbarisms cling to our memory as ineradicably as the golden lines of Æschylus or Shakspeare. And what was our profit from all this loathsome labour, and the loathsome heap of rubbish thus deposited in the memory? Attend, if you please, good reader: the first professes to teach the irregularities of nouns as to gender (i. e. which nouns having a masculine termination are yet feminine, &c.) the second to teach the irregularities of nouns as to number (i. e. which want the singular, which the plural,) the third to teach the irregularities of verbs (i. e. their deviations from the generic forms of the preterite and the supine): this is what they *profess* to teach. Suppose, then, their professions realized, what is the result? Why, that you have laboriously anticipated a case of anomaly which, if it do actually occur, could not possibly cost more trouble to explain at the time of its occurrence than you are thus premising. This is as if a man should sit down to cull all the difficult cases of action which could ever occur to him in his relations of son, father, citizen, neighbour, public functionary, &c. under the plea that he would thus have got over the labour of discussion before the case itself arrived. Supposing that this could be accomplished, what would it effect but to cancel a benevolent arrangement of providence by which the difficulties of life are distributed with tolerable equality throughout its whole course, and obstinately to accumulate them all upon a particular period. Sufficient for the day is its own evil; dispatch your business as it arises, and every day clears itself; but suffer a few months of unaudited accounts, or of unanswered letters, to accumulate; and a mountain of arrears is before you, which years seem insufficient to get rid of. This sort of accumulation arises in the shape of *arrears*: but any accumulation of trouble out of its proper place, i. e. of a distributed trouble into a state of convergence,—no matter whether in the shape of needless anticipation or needless procrastination, has equally the practical effect of converting a light trouble (or none at all) into a heavy and hateful one.

"The daily experience of books, actual intercourse with Latin

authors, is sufficient to teach all the irregularities of that language; just as the daily experience of an English child leads him without trouble into all the anomalies of his own language. And, to return to the question which we put—"What was our profit from all this loathsome labour?" In this way it was, viz. in the way of actual experience that we, the reviewer of this book, did actually in the end come to the knowledge of those irregularities which the three elegant poems in question profess to communicate. Mark this, reader; the logic of what we are saying—is first, that if they *did* teach what they profess, they would attain that end by an artificial means far more laborious than the natural means; and secondly, that in fact they do *not* attain their end. The reason of this—is partly the perplexed and barbarous texture of the verse, which, for metrical purposes, i. e. to keep the promise of metre to the mere technical scansion, is obliged to abandon all those natural beauties of metre in the fluent connexion of the words, in the rhythmus, cadence, cæsura, &c. which alone recommend metre as a better or more rememberable form for conveying knowledge than prose; prose, if it has no music, at any rate does not compel the most inartificial writer to dislocate and distort it into non-intelligibility. Another reason is, that "*As in præsentî*" and its companions, are not so much adapted to the reading as to the writing of Latin. For instance, I remember (we will suppose) this sequence of "*tango tetigi*" from the "*As in P.*" Now, if I am *reading* Latin, I meet either with the tense "*tango*," or the tense "*tetigi*." In the former case, I have no difficulty; for there is as yet no irregularity; and therefore it is impertinent to offer assistance. In the latter case I *do* find a difficulty, for, according to the models of verbs which I have learned in my grammar, there is no possible verb which could yield *tetigi*; for such a verb as *tetigo* even ought to yield *tetixi*; here, therefore, I should be glad of some assistance; but just here it is that I obtain none; for, because I remember "*tango tetigi*" in the direct order, it is quite contrary to the laws of association which govern the memory in such a case, to suppose that I remember the inverted order of *tetigi tango*—any more than the forward repetition of the Lord's Prayer ensures its backward repetition. The practical applicability of "*As in præsentî*" is, therefore,

solely to the act of *writing* Latin ; for, having occasion to translate the words “ I touched,” I search for the Latin equivalent to the English word *touch*—find that it is *tango*, and then am reminded (whilst forming the preterit) that *tango* makes not *tanxi* but “ *tetigi*.” Such a use, therefore, I might by possibility derive from my long labours ; meantime, even here the service is in all probability doubly superfluous ; for, by the time that I am called on to write Latin at all, experience will have taught me that *tungo* makes *tetigi* ; or, supposing that I am required to write Latin as one of the earliest means for gaining experience, even in that case the very same dictionary which teaches me what is Latin for “ *touch*,” teaches me what is the irregular preterite and supine of *tango*. And thus the “ upshot” (to use a homely word) of the whole business—is that an effort of memory, so great as to be capable otherwise directed of mastering a science, and secondly (because directed to an unnatural composition, viz. an arrangement of metre, which is at once the rudest and the most elaborately artificial), so disgusting as that no accession of knowledge could compensate the injury thus done to the simplicity of the child’s understanding, by connecting pain and a sense of unintelligible mystery with his earliest steps in knowledge,—all this hyperbolical apparatus and machinery is worked for no one end or purpose that is not better answered by a question to his tutor, by consulting his dictionary, or by the *insensible* progress of daily experience. Even this argument derived from its utter uselessness does not, however, weigh so much with us as the other argument derived from the want of common sense, involved in the wilful forestalling and artificial concentrating into one long rosary of anomalies, what else the nature of the case has by good luck dispersed over the whole territory of the Latin language.

“ To be consistent, a tutor should take the same proleptical course with regard to the prosody of the Latin language: every Latin hyper-dissyllable is manifestly accentuated according to the following law : if the penultimate be long, that syllable inevitably claims the accent ; if short, inevitably it rejects it—i. e. gives it to the ante-penultimate. The determining syllable is therefore the penultimate ; and for the due reading of Latin,

the sole question is about the quantity of the penultimate. According to the logic, therefore, which could ever have introduced "As in præsentî," the tutor ought to make his pupils commit to memory every individual word in which the quantity was not predetermined by a mechanical rule—(as it is e. g. in the gen. plural *ōrum* of the second declension, the *ērunt* of the third per. plurals of the preterite, &c. or the cases where the vowel is long by position). But what man of sense would forbear to cry out in such a case—"Leave the poor child to his daily reading: practice, under correct tuition, will give him insensibly and without effort all that you would thus endeavour to communicate through a most Herculean exertion." Whom has it cost any trouble to learn the accentuation of his own language? How has he learned *that*? Simply by copying others—and so much without effort, that the effort (and a very great effort) would have been *not* to copy them. In that way let him learn the quantity of Latin and Greek penultimates. That Edmund Burke could violate the quantity of the word "Vectigal" was owing to his tutor's ignorance, who had allowed him so to read it; that Lord North, and every other Etonian in the house, knew better—was owing not to any disproportionate effort of memory directed to that particular word, as though they had committed to memory a rule enjoining them to place the accent on the penultimate of the word Vectigal: their knowledge no more rested on such an anticipation by express rules of their own experience, than Burke's ignorance of the quantity on the want of such anticipation; the anticipation was needless—coming from a tutor who knew the quantity; and impossible—coming from a tutor who knew it not.

"At this moment a little boy (three years old) is standing by our table, and repeatedly using the word *muns* for *men*; his sister (five years old), at his age, made the very same mistake: but she is now correcting her brother's grammar, which just at this moment he is stoutly defending—conceiving his dignity involved in the assertion of his own impeccability. Now, whence came the little girl's error and its correction? Following blindly the general analogy of the language, she formed her plural by adding an *s* to the singular: afterwards every body about her

became a daily monitor—a living *Propria quæ maribus*, as she is in her turn to her brother, instructing her that this particular word “*man*” swerved, as to this one particular point, from the general analogy of the language. But the result is just as inevitable from daily intercourse with Latin books, as to the parallel anomalies in that language. In proportion as any case of anomaly could escape the practical regulation of such an intercourse, just in that proportion it must be a rare case, and less important to be known: whatsoever the future experience will be most likely to demand, the past experience will be most likely to have furnished.

All this we urge not against the Eton grammar in particular: on the contrary, as grammars go, we admire the Eton grammar;\* and love it with a filial partiality from early associations (always excepting, however, the three lead-mines of the Eton grammar, “*Propria quæ maribus*,” &c. of which it is not extravagant to say, that the author, though possibly a good sort of a man in his way, has undoubtedly caused more human suffering than Nero, Robespierre, or any other enemy of the human race). Our opposition is to the general principle, which lies at the root of such treatises as the three we have been considering: it will be observed that, making a proper allowance for the smallness of the print, these three bodies of absurd anticipations of exceptions, are collectively about equal in quantity, and virtually for the effort to the memory far more than equal, to the whole body of the rules contained in the *Accidence* and the *Syntax*: i. e. that which exists on account of many thousand cases is put on the same level of value and burthen to the memory, as that which exists on account of itself alone.

Here lies the original sin of grammars, the mortal taint on which they all demand regeneration: whosoever would show

\* Indeed an Etonian must in consistency condemn either the Latin or the Greek grammar of Eton. For, where is the Greek “*Propria quæ maribus*” --- “*Quæ genus*” --- and “*As in præsentî?*” Either the Greek grammar is defective, or the Latin redundant. We are surprised that it has never struck the patrons of these three beautiful Idylls, that all the anomalies of the Greek language are left to be collected from practice.

himself a great artist in the profound but as yet infant art of teaching, should regard all arbitrary taxes upon the memory with the same superstition that a wise lawgiver should regard the punishment of death : the lawgiver who sets out with little knowledge (and therefore little veneration) of human nature, is perpetually invoking the thunders of the law to compensate the internal weakness of his own laws : and the same spirit of levity disposes inefficient teachers to put in motion the weightiest machinery of the mind for the most trifling purposes : but we are convinced that this law should be engraven on the title-page of all elementary books—that the memory is degraded, if it be called in to deliver any individual fact, or any number of individual facts, or for any less purpose than that of delivering a comprehensive law, by means of which the understanding is to *produce* the individual cases of knowledge wanted. Wherever exceptions or insulated cases are noticed, except in notes, which are not designed to be committed to memory, this rule is violated ; and the Scotch expression for particularising, viz. *condescending upon*, becomes applicable in a literal sense : when the Eton grammar, e. g. notices *Deus* as deviating in the vocative case from the general law for that declension, the memory is summoned to an unreasonable act of condescension—viz. to load itself almost as heavily for one particular word in one particular case, as it had done by the whole type of that declension, (i. e. the implicit law for all words contained under it, which are possibly some thousands). But how then would we have such exceptions learnt, if not by an act of the memory ? Precisely, we answer, as the meanings of all the words in the language are learned : how are *they* learned ? They are known, and they are remembered : but how ? Not by any act or effort of the memory : they are *deposited* in the memory from daily intercourse with them : just as the daily occurrences of our lives are recorded in our memories : not through any exertion on our part, or in consequence of previous determination on our parts, that we will remember them : on the contrary, we take no pains about them, and often would willingly forget them : but they stay there in spite of us, and are pure *depositions*, settlements, or sediments, with or without our concurrence, from the stream of our daily experience."



## CHAPTER V.

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### ON ELOCUTION.

IT is by no means our intention to write a treatise on this subject ; we have, however, a few observations to make, the result of experience, which may explain why a considerable portion of our time is occupied in the various exercises, which may be classed under the general head, ELOCUTION.

It has never been disputed, we believe, that to read well is a desirable accomplishment. It is valuable for its own sake ; but to the teacher it will assume a character of higher importance, when he reflects, how much that is useful a boy must have acquired, before he can be said to be a good reader.

The groundwork of this acquirement, a quick perception of the author's meaning, is most easily and certainly gained by private reading ; for the necessary slowness of good delivery, and the bodily effort required, are unfavourable to that rapid appreciation of the subject matter, which is the sole occupation of the silent reader. Good reading, then, presupposes literary taste ; and the rank which it bestows in a school is in some measure a reward for those unobtrusive exertions, which are in danger of being

forgotten, precisely for the reason why they ought to be most sedulously remembered,—because they give the master no trouble.

As private or silent reading is the best means of learning to translate the written language of the author into ideas, so reading aloud is the best, and, indeed, the only means of learning to translate the written signs into oral words ; and much practice of this kind is requisite to produce fluency. The master will of course take the opportunity afforded by oral reading to teach the standard pronunciation. A boy, however, may read very fluently, comprehend his author, and know the standard pronunciation perfectly, without reading well. Two great constituents of good reading remain to be acquired—Enunciation and Inflection.

The enunciation and inflection of any language are, we conceive, best learnt by recitation. Where the words are well fixed in the memory, the pupil has only to attend to the delivery. Let him then be taught to recite a passage, until the slightest variation of either enunciation or inflection between him and his teacher is imperceptible.

The first lesson ought to be to copy others ; afterwards the pupil may invent his inflection for himself, or rather apply it ; for, as the philosophical student well knows, the modes of inflection are but few, and a little practice will soon teach their application, when the power of producing them at will is once acquired. The sounds of a language are also very

limited, and may all be comprised in a passage of moderate length. We have observed that, in mere reading, a pupil never learns to utter any sound perfectly. He is satisfied with a very gross approximation, and so must the master, if he wish the pupil to proceed ; while, on the contrary, our plan renders it necessary for the boy to reiterate the passage almost *ad infinitum* ; but then he learns to form all, or nearly all, the sounds of the language. It is true he is dependant on the particular collocation in which they have been placed ; and, although he can recite that particular passage perfectly, he will find difficulties in another, containing the same sounds differently arranged. He has, however, proceeded according to that fundamental rule in education, "One difficulty at a time," and has gained a very important acquisition. He has a standard of perfection in his mind, by which he will measure all his future attempts ; and much less exertion will be necessary to enable him to recite a second passage, than was requisite for the first. Thus, he will gradually throw off his trammels without lowering his excellence.

A young Spaniard, one of our pupils, who pronounced our language but imperfectly, once learnt, by a number of repetitions, to recite a piece of English verse with such accuracy, as to be mistaken for a native by persons who had not heard him converse.

If our principle be correct, it should follow that a student incurs some danger ; who goes into a foreign

country before he is master of the pronunciation of the language ; because the daily necessity for speaking will render it necessary that he should make constant attempts, and the persons about him, eager to interpret his meaning, will not be so anxious, in all cases, to correct his errors as to supply his wants. It is true, infants learn thus ; but the organs in infancy are so extremely pliant, that they obey the slightest impulse of the will ; and after all, there is much to condemn in the enunciation of a very large proportion of society ; a defect not only to be regretted for the pain which it causes to a well-cultivated ear, but for its injury to the mind of the speaker. Every one must have observed how often the uneducated confound the meanings of words which have any similarity of sound, from not accurately marking the difference of their pronunciation. To cultivate the ear and the organs of speech, is, therefore, to excite attentions to these distinctions. A close connexion is admitted to exist between correctness of expression and precision of thought ; whatever, therefore, leads the pupil to examine in any way the structure of language, must tend to the improvement of his mental powers.

We consider gesticulation an art which ought not to be neglected. To the public speaker, if we may believe the prince of orators, it is every thing ; but even with humbler views, we think it of no mean importance. Condillac asks, " Whether any one could know a language, if the brain did not acquire

habits answering to those of the ears to hear it, those of the lips to speak it, and those of the eyes to read it? The recollection of a language is not, therefore, solely in the habits of the brain, it is also in the habits of the organs of hearing, of speech, and of sight." If Condillac is right, to ensure memory we should engage the assistance of as many habits as possible. The habits of the organs of gesture, the hands, the feet, the muscles of the face, &c., may all be made to assist. The memory, even in youth, is sufficiently treacherous, and requires every possible guard. We have, therefore, considered an energetic delivery, accompanied by appropriate action, valuable assistants. We may add, that we find careful recitation an excellent method of infixing the quantities of Latin and Greek words in the recollections of our pupils.

The practice of elocution is intimately connected with the cure of impediments in the speech. Slight defects of utterance, as lisping, muttering, and the elision or substitution of certain sounds, yield to it almost immediately. Stammering is a more obstinate enemy, and is not subdued without much time and labour.

It has, we think, been clearly proved by Mr. Thelwall, that the disobedience of the organs to the will of the speaker (which is the proximate cause of stammering), proceeds from his neglect of the laws of rhythmus,—in other words, from his not speaking with due attention to measure or time; which laws,

it has also been shewn by the same writer, are observed by all good speakers, as truly in the careless prose of conversation, as in the most polished verse. Be this, however, as it may, we have found in practice, that cultivating the ear, with regard to the perception of time in speech, is an excellent means of restoring to the pupil a due control over his organs. But the mere perception of time and rhythmus is not enough, because the exercise of the faculty may be thwarted; and it will be thwarted by every thing which disturbs the mind, and irritates the temper of the pupil. Health, employment, and order, will be, therefore, found to be very important auxiliaries in working the cure; and here, we think, we have some advantages.

Frequent opportunities for exercise in the open air with companions of his own age,—a system which regulates his actions without harshly coercing them,—the spectacle of a machine working its numerous parts without hurry or confusion;—these appear to us to be circumstances more than commonly favourable for placing the pupil in a state of body and mind to receive the lessons of the master with profit. We have also facilities for inducing the perception of time; the pupil is constantly witnessing the measured movements of others, and is trying to act in concert with them. To learn to march he finds indispensable to his comfort. The motive to exertion thus obtained, his daily practice, and the effect of

example, soon overcome any natural inaptitude for making the acquisition.

Every stammerer, the reader will have observed, can sing; at least, the defect of stammering offers no bar to his being a singer, if he is in possession of the usual qualifications of voice and ear. The ear, we are convinced from experience, may in almost all cases be educated to a sufficient degree of accuracy for our purpose; and the voice is a matter of little importance to us, as our pupil would not learn to sing with the view of exercising the art, but simply to qualify him for learning to speak.

In extreme cases, then, we would have the pupil taught to sing. From singing, let him pass to *recitative*, which so nearly approaches to speaking, that the Siennese, we are told, actually practise an intonation, which may be considered a species of it, in common conversation.

The next step is for the pupil, accompanied by his master, to march along the room, and repeat a few verses chosen for the simplicity of their rhythmus, the speakers marking the accented syllables by the tread of the foot. Afterwards verses of more difficulty may be adopted; then measured prose, as Barbauld's Hymns, Dodsley's Economy of Human Life, or (to go at once to the models from which these are imitated) our translation of the Psalms, the Book of Job, and the Prophecies. From these we would proceed to extracts from didactic works; and, lastly, to narrative and dialogue.

In going through this course, the teacher gradually ceases to accompany his pupil, either in marching or speaking, until at length he directs the boy himself to stand still. Recitation may be sometimes changed for reading, and instead of the *sing-song* tone almost inseparable from the plan in its early stages, more natural inflections may be substituted. The pupil should now be taught to relieve his difficulty of utterance in conversation by forcible gestures, and by pronouncing his words with a measured cadence; marching also, or beating time, when he finds the impediment cannot be surmounted otherwise.

This plan of proceeding we have never found to fail, when a fair allowance of time has been afforded for the experiment;—at least, so far as giving the scholar the power of correct utterance may be called success; but, strange as it may appear, it is frequently much more easy to induce the capacity for speaking without stammering, than the inclination. The reconciling power of habit extends even to this malady; and instances are by no means rare of persons who, after becoming able to speak fluently with very slight self-command, have slid again into their former track, apparently from not feeling the importance of the acquisition which they had made.

It is, therefore, very important that a stammerer should be put under discipline at an early age, before his habits become fixed, and while it is possible to keep him under superintendence, until the evil is



quite eradicated. Except the moral habits of children, none demand a greater watchfulness than those of their speech. Practice in speaking is so constant, that habits, either for better or worse, are soon formed. A little care by the parent would prevent much labour and loss of time to his children in after life. Among the most baneful of all affectations is that of speaking to children in their own defective enunciation; we are examples to them, and we cannot be surprised that they should rest satisfied with imperfection, when they find us aping it ourselves.

## CHAPTER VI.

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### ON PENMANSHIP.

THE most important branch of penmanship is undoubtedly the plain manuscript, which we call running hand. All the larger hands ought to be considered useful, chiefly as they tend to give the pupil more just ideas of the forms of the characters, and more correct habits of delineating them, than he could gain by studying them in the minuteness of common manuscript. The large hand, seen through a diminishing glass, ought to shrink into the current hand, and the current hand magnified ought to swell into a large hand. But if this test be applied to Langford's copper-plate copies, or indeed to any which we have yet seen, they fail. His large hands reduced appear very stiff and cramped, when compared with the freedom of his running hand; and the magnified running hand, to those who have formed their taste upon the models for large hand in general use, appears little better than a scrawl.

Perhaps this want of proportion results from a wish to make each hand perfect of itself. The artists

may think the same proportional width not necessary in the larger hands as in the smaller ones. And this opinion is very probably correct; but then, as the larger hands are seldom used in real life, the power of writing them in their most perfect state would be dearly bought at the expense of the current hand.

In the common methods of instruction, a current hand is rarely acquired at school, even at any age. With us, it is a point of great importance to put the pupil in possession of so useful an instrument of education comparatively early; and, therefore, if any sacrifice were necessary for the attainment of this end, we should be ready to make it; but no sacrifice is demanded. When the running hand is acquired, the pupil may, where it is thought necessary, learn to write the larger hands according to the received models; but until he has accomplished what appears to us to be the object of greatest importance, we are unwilling to perplex his ideas and his incipient habits with inconsistent exemplars and various modes of execution.

The requisites of a running hand are three; legibility, rapidity, and beauty. These are placed in what we conceive to be the order of their value.

As the use of writing is to be read, no manuscript which has not a fair degree of legibility can be called good; and the writer, in judging of the degree requisite, should recollect, that his own handwriting must be more familiar, and of course more legible, to himself than to others.

That the power of writing swiftly is of great importance will be readily conceded. The labour which is so frequently undergone to acquire a shorthand, proves that too much inconvenience is already suffered, from the slowness which the present cumbersome system of our orthography, and the complicated structure of our written characters, impose upon the writer, to render any additional clog, from want of dexterity in himself, at all tolerable.

The beauty of manuscript it would be very difficult to reduce to principle ; perhaps it would be impossible to show one, very swiftly written and very legible, which was not beautiful. At all events, we conceive the writer would have but little reason to lament any deficiency, in a hand which possessed two such valuable qualities.

The usual method of instruction in penmanship is to commence by teaching the pupil to imitate an exemplar of large hand, which has the defect before-mentioned, of not being a correctly magnified current hand. Thus his ideas of excellence are injured ; but that is not all ; for setting aside the incorrectness of the model, the scholar is generally permitted to gain a habit of forming the letters, which he has to unlearn when he begins to write swiftly. He is generally allowed to raise his pen and remove his hand at every stroke ; nor does he set his pen down at the precise point at which he raised it ; for supposing him to have finished a down-stroke, he springs the following up-stroke, not from the foot of the

stem, but from the middle ; so that, instead of preserving one uniform gliding motion to the end of the word, in which neither the hand nor the pen is ever removed from the paper, the pupil is learning a system of double leaps,—one horizontal with his hand, another oblique with his pen.

We no more see, we must confess, how the scholar can learn a running hand by such practice as this, than how he could learn to skate by imitating the jumping of a frog. In fact, he does *not* learn a current hand by any such process ; and nothing is more common than to find a boy, who brings home copy-books beautifully written, fall into a wretched scrawl the moment he attempts an approach to the rapidity of real business. If he possess a natural facility for acquiring the art, he may do so by practice after he has left school ; but if he be the mere creature of instruction, he continues to scrawl through life. Thus we consider the manner in which a letter is formed, to be of more importance than its abstract beauty or deformity ; for who could hesitate to prefer the power of writing a plain but rapid hand, to that of producing the most exquisite caligraphy at so slow a rate as to be unfit for business ?

In the acquisition of all the imitative arts, two great difficulties must be overcome. First the eye must obtain an accurate knowledge of what the hand ought to perform ; and, secondly, the hand must learn to fulfil with exactness the commands of the

eye. Delineation of large manuscript letters with chalk on a board or with a pencil on a slate, is an excellent means of educating the eye, and making it critically acquainted with forms and proportions. When the copy is finished, the teacher should lead his pupils to mark its aberrations from the original.

From what we have already said, the intelligent reader will have collected that our standard is always the running hand, and that the original above mentioned is rigorously formed upon that standard, differing from it only in size. The process here described, being totally distinct from writing, no more interferes with the learner's habit of using the pen, than is done by any other species of drawing.

The pupil having formed to himself a tolerably correct *ideal*, as the painters call it, must now begin to educate his hand. For this purpose, we set him to write, with pen and ink, letters as large as he can form, consistently with preserving all the habits necessary to the correct execution of the running hand. The letters are from time to time decreased in size, until they are no larger than those of Langford's running hand.

The great desideratum is now to find some means by which the pupil shall change, by insensible gradation, his slow hand into a current hand. This alteration is generally a dangerous epoch in a school-boy's graphic life. The Scylla is a formal stiff hand, incapable of rapid execution—the Charybdis a scrawl. In steering between these contrary dangers, two

principles are to be kept in sight. The first, for which we have already provided, is, that the slow hands should be formed on the model of a perfect swift hand ; so that, if the pupils were suddenly gifted with the power of writing rapidly, there would be no change in the form of his letters. The second, that the pupil should be put in possession of a method by which he may gradually, and thereby safely increase his speed.

It seems to be a law of our nature, that the bodily organs perform their functions with greatest swiftness, ease, and certainty, when their action is regulated by measured intervals of time. Every one has observed the Herculean labours of a dancer, whose ear is not sufficiently accurate to make his movements accord with the music. All pedestrians know the importance of stepping with great precision, when they are making an extraordinary effort. The stammerer, who cannot utter three consecutive words in common speech without hesitation, will sing with ease ; and it would be difficult to refer the extraordinary rapidity with which the musician flies over the keys of his instrument, pitching on the right note without the chance of error, to any other principle. Seeing, then, its power, wherever swiftness and certainty are to be combined, we were led to consider whether it might not be advantageously employed in teaching penmanship.

We had observed that many penmen stammer, (so to speak,) in their writing ; that is to say, their pen

and their mind seem to be at variance ; the pen delineating one letter when the writer intends it to form another ; and when even the error is not quite so gross, the beauty and legibility of their hand, suffer from an irregularity of motion, which also prevents them from proceeding with the rapidity of those who keep time with perfect accuracy. This defect, no doubt, arises from a too sudden transition from the slowness of the formal school-boy hand to the rapidity of the running hand ; an evil which the principle before alluded to, appeared capable of obviating, as it is evident that the rate of speed of any movement which is made to time can be increased by slow gradation.

The laws of musical time, therefore, appeared to furnish the object of which we had been in search ; and the test of experiment soon proved our conjectures to be well founded. The mode we adopted for reducing this principle to practice, is as follows.

The pupil having acquired a certain degree of facility in slow writing, joins a class employed in forming words, which consist of strokes of equal length, as *inn*, *mum*, *nim*, &c. After practising one of these words in his accustomed manner, a pendulum is made to vibrate in the time required for an up-stroke, and the corresponding down-stroke : a boy is appointed to the office of time-beater, who counts the vibrations aloud till he has numbered the down-strokes in the word ; when, leaving one



## CHAPTER VII.

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### ON VOLUNTARY LABOUR.

“EDUCATION (it is somewhere said) is like the true art of blowing a fire : it is of more importance to leave a steady clear flame, when you have done, than to make a great blaze, which only lasts while you have the bellows in your hands.” We are sure our readers will join with us in forgiving the homeliness of this figure, in consideration of its truth and importance ; the principle exemplified will never be overlooked by the judicious teacher, whenever an opportunity arises for its application.

We shall be disappointed if it do not appear throughout the whole of what we have written, to have been a great object with us—first, that as little coercion as possible shall be used in any stage of the pupil’s education ; and secondly, that even this little shall be from time to time withdrawn, as he becomes able to direct himself ; so that when he leaves the school he may have matured the habit of self-government.

We have been much assisted in this design by a practice which has grown up among us, and which, for want of a better name, we call *voluntary labour*.

The reader is already acquainted with our system of personal and transferable marks, and he is aware that they are gained in various ways; one of which is, by study during the hours of liberty. This employment we call voluntary labour, not because it is so perfectly optional that a boy would suffer no inconvenience from neglecting it, for no boy could preserve a high place in the school, without some considerable exertion of this kind; since the rank of two weeks in each half-year is *bought* with personal marks: we call it voluntary labour, because the particular time and study are left to the discretion or caprice of the pupil.

The favourite subjects seem to be working the printing-press, penmanship of various kinds, drawing, etching, and painting; constructing maps, making surveys, and delineating mathematical diagrams; reading books on which they prepare themselves for answering questions, studying music, modelling animals, and constructing machines; filling offices bearing salaries, learning orations, extracts from the poets, parts in plays and dialogues, taking reports of lectures, trials, and debates; and composition in prose and verse in various languages.

This department, which is now become so important a feature in our system, took its rise from the necessity of furnishing to boys, who had no chance of obtaining marks by excelling their schoolfellows, opportunities of gaining them, by working harder than those to whom nature had been more propi-

tious. It appeared to us, that as in the common course of events, this must be their lot in after-life, it would be well to accustom them to it in their early years; nor were we without hopes, that their superior industry would enable them to press on the heels of their competitors, and to show them that talent alone would not be sufficient, at all times, to secure superiority. It seemed also of consequence to make imprisonment as rare as possible; both because it is attended with unavoidable disgrace (to which no mind can with safety be frequently exposed), and because, unlike labour, it is pain without any utility, except that of example, which appertains to all judicious penalty of whatever kind.

Our dislike to tasks and impositions is, that they must be performed with unpleasant associations: now a boy, if possible, ought never to go to a book with disgust. Sometimes the difficulty of the study, or its want of accordance with his peculiar tastes, will unavoidably generate some unpleasant feeling. This the judicious teacher will endeavour to remove; but, above all things, he will guard against adding to it from extraneous causes. By the plan before us, we have all the advantage of the labour, without any injury to the boy; for when he sits down to his desk, he feels that he is not obliged to work at that particular time, neither is he under the necessity of engaging in a pursuit from which his inclination revolts. On the contrary, his time and his exertions are at his own disposal, and the object for which he

labours being to rival his companions in *wealth*, and not to work out a fine, increases instead of diminishing the feeling of satisfaction which cheers his efforts.

Sufficient attention, we think, has not been paid by teachers in general to the fact, that irksome employment is more laborious, or at least that it sooner exhausts the strength, than exertions which are consonant to the taste and disposition of the student. Thus, in yielding, as we do, by this plan, to the inclinations of the boys, we obtain a far greater amount of labour, than we could exact, without danger to the health of our pupils, if their exertions were counteracted by any adverse feelings and desires on their parts. At the same time, the intelligent reader will be aware, that as we have the power of rewarding the pupil according to the difficulty and utility of the pursuit in which he is engaged, we hold a pretty strong influence over him—one which we have found sufficiently powerful to wean him gradually from trifling avocations, and to fix his mind on objects of real importance—and this, to an extent beyond our most sanguine expectations.

The *scale* of rewards is, though a silent, yet a very efficacious monitor. The patient and experienced teacher, who has a proper faith in the power of time, will expect every thing from the influence of gentle, and (if we may be allowed the expression), *quiet* motives, when they are in continual action. Nor will he altogether despise pursuits, which appear and

which, perhaps, are, in themselves, frivolous ; since they may produce the most salutary effects on the minds of the pupils. It has frequently happened to us, to receive boys into the school, whose mental powers were torpid, or (so to speak) quite frozen : a state, which will be allowed by all who have tried the experiment, most difficult to act upon. They have, however, all *thawed* under the influence of the plan in consideration. It is true their first efforts were not very promising ;—perhaps they came before us in the shape of a rude model of a *hogsty*—but then, how was the boy affected ? He had learnt a lesson in the invaluable art of self-application ; he had tasted the pleasure of success ; he had acquired property ; and he, perhaps, for the first time in his life, had associated pleasant ideas with school. Still he was not, because he had surmounted a molehill, deceived by flattery into an opinion that he had scaled the Alps. The measure of his reward would at once remind him, that he might find more lucrative modes of employing his time, and engage in other pursuits which would raise him to a rank of higher consideration among his fellows. The stimulus, as it always should be, was just strong enough to produce the effect required, and no stronger.

It is sometimes objected to public education, that it cannot sufficiently consult the peculiar destination of the boy ; and the objection is, to a certain ex-

tent, well founded. We think the reader will be of opinion that the branch of our system under discussion obviates this difficulty; for while the more important departments of education are carried on in classes, which demand an equal attention from each pupil, he has still motive and opportunity for employing part of his time in studies more peculiarly adapted to his future pursuits.

One of the most valuable habits of life is that of completing every undertaking. The mental dissipation in which persons of talent often indulge, and to which they are, perhaps, more prone than others, is destructive beyond what can readily be imagined. A man who has lost the power of prosecuting a task the moment its novelty is gone, or it is become encumbered with difficulty, has reduced his mind into a state of the most lamentable and wretched imbecility. His life will inevitably be one of shreds and patches. The consciousness of not having persevered to the end of any single undertaking will hang over him like a spell, and paralyze all his energies; and he will at last believe, that, however fair may be his prospects, and however feasible his plans, he is *fated* never to succeed.

The habit of finishing ought to be formed in early youth. We take care to reward no boy for fragments, whatever may be their excellence. We know nothing of his exertions until they come before us in a state of completion. The consequence is, that

every one learns to measure his powers. He undertakes nothing which he has not a rational hope of accomplishing; and having begun, and knowing that he can receive neither fame nor profit by instalments, he is urged forcibly on to the end of his course.

## CHAPTER VIII:

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### COMPARISON OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EDUCATION.

IF the number of books already in existence upon any topic were a good reason against new attempts, we should have no right to intrude upon the world our observations on the comparative merits of public and private education; a subject which has employed so many able pens, both ancient and modern. It appears to us, however, that the number of works,—especially when, as in the present case, the inquiries of the authors produce results so different and contradictory,—far from showing that the labour of examination is finished, proves rather that the truth has hitherto evaded our search; or that the question changes with the times, and that the modes of education which were the best that could be adopted in one age, may yet be deservedly exploded in another. We are not vain enough to suppose, that the few and casual hints which may be thrown out in this little essay, can do much towards extending the public knowledge of the subject; and yet the pile of human wisdom may resemble the cairns of Scotland, which rise, in the course of ages, from single



stones piously added to the heap by the hand of the traveller.

Many of the discordant opinions afloat in the world on this question, arise, no doubt, from its difficulty ; but many of them, also, arise from unfair comparison. The advocates for private education have generally contrasted an ideal system of their own, with the actual existing plan of education which has been so long established, and which has remained stationary, whilst almost every thing else has been improved. To compare what might be, (or what theorists imagine might be,) with what is,—castles in the air with the brick and mortar tenements which are inhabited by us, “ the groundlings,”—may be a tolerably sure means of disgusting us with what we have, but it is rather a questionable method of proving the superiority of their own system of architecture.

That the plan of education which now obtains in our public schools is by no means perfect, we not only allow, but strenuously maintain ; but we beg our readers to distinguish between a peculiar plan of public education and the general scheme of educating numbers together.\*

In order to examine this important and interesting

\* We beg to be understood to speak only of the *plan*. The execution is another thing ; and we have no hesitation in saying, that the country owes a debt of gratitude to the masters of those establishments, by whose profound learning and exemplary diligence so much is accomplished, in spite of the difficulties imposed on them by the faulty system under which they are obliged to act.

question with any chance of success, it will be necessary to inquire,—

1st. Whether, in the present state of things, private education is more successful than public?

2nd. Whether systems of private education are improving more rapidly than systems of public education?—and

3rd. Whether private education is capable, under the most favourable circumstances, of producing so much excellence, moral, physical, and mental, as public education in its highest improvement?

As to the first question, “Whether, in the present state of things, private education is more successful than public?” we can only appeal to the reader’s experience; for a very fallacious estimate would be formed by counting the names of great men who have been educated by either mode, because, as Rousseau justly observes, “Education is intended for common minds; genius will evolve itself.”

Judging, then, from their own private experience, do our readers find youths educated privately to possess more ardour, more industry, more solid acquirement, than others? Is the change to the world less from the study than from the school-room? Are they less dependent, better inured to hardships; or are their morals better adapted to endure the shock of society? If the experience of our readers answer these questions in the affirmative, we shall be surprised, it is true, but we shall by no means consider the matter set at rest: we shall proceed im-

mediately to the second question, and ask if they have witnessed any improvements in private education to compete with those of Dr. Bell and Mr. Lancaster in England, and of Pestalozzi and Fellenberg in Switzerland. They will undoubtedly bring to our minds the experiments (for we are talking of facts)—the experiments recorded by Mr. and Miss Edgeworth, in their inestimable work on education. Cheerfully do we admit the importance of their labours, and gratefully do we acknowledge the benefits which we ourselves have derived from them. But their general principles are nearly as applicable to the education of large numbers as to the instruction of a private family; and when this is not the case, we fear they could only be reduced to practice by teachers of extraordinary talent and acquirement. In a word, we believe the greater number of their discoveries (if we may use the term) to be applicable to either species of education; and that what is so delicate as not to be reducible to system requires more talent for its exercise, than can fairly be expected to fall to the lot of teachers in general.

There is this great difference between improvements which make part of a system, and those which do not,—that the former can be reduced to practice, and preserved by minds of very inferior powers to those which originated them; while the latter are only available to such as approach very nearly, both in kind and degree, the minds of the discoverers themselves.

From these considerations, it should seem that public education, which, being of the nature of a science, is more reducible to system than private instruction, may be improved by generation after generation, each preserving the discoveries of the former, and adding to them; while private instruction rather resembling an art, which is more dependent upon the powers of single individuals, is not so capable of continual advancement.

We come now to our third and last question, "Whether private education, in its perfection, is capable of producing so much excellence, moral, mental, and physical, as public education under equally favourable circumstances?"

The first object of education should be, we think, to render the after-life of the pupil most useful to society and most happy to himself; the next should be, to render the passing years of the pupil as happy as possible. Rousseau places the latter object first, because, he says, it is uncertain that the pupil will ever live beyond the period of childhood; but we think, that if society takes (as it does) the trouble and expense of education upon itself, and if (as cannot be doubted) education is a valuable gift to the child, that then society has a fair claim upon the services of the future man; and that he ought to be so instructed as to render those services in the most effectual manner.

But this is, perhaps, a useless refinement; for it would not be very difficult to show, that a child,

while acquiring such an education as would make him the most useful man, would be in the highest enjoyment of life.

We perfectly agree with Rousseau, that the severest evil which children suffer is the bondage which they endure. We also agree with him, that the restraints of necessity are more easily borne than those which are imposed by the will of others. "It is in the nature of man," says he, "to endure patiently the absolute necessity of his circumstances. 'It is all gone,' is an answer against which a child never objects, at least if he believes it to be true."\*

Experience must establish the truth of this position in every mind; we all know that a child leaves off crying for the moon, years before he submits without a struggle to the commands of his parents.

The cause of this difference arises, we think, partly from the uniform regularity with which the natural restraints operate, and partly because the child observes that all around him are subjected to the same laws. If the child had ever had the moon, or if it had ever seen the moon in the possession of another person, it would not be so patient under the privation.

Sagacious parents are aware of this, and take every means of showing their children that their determinations are as unalterable as those of nature: and certainly much may be done by prudently avoid-

\* *Emilius*, Book II.

ing hasty determinations with respect to children, and by inflexibly persisting in all determinations when made. The difficulty of this task is well known to all parents; and, in order to facilitate the exercise of authority, they usually have recourse to general rules. Thus, for example, a child is in the habit of going to bed when the clock strikes eight. Here association of ideas is called in to aid the authority of the parent; but how difficult is it in a private family to avoid motives, and strong motives, in the minds of both parent and child, for the occasional violation of this rule? and when the rule has been a few times disregarded, farewell to the association of ideas! But, supposing the rule never to be broken, even then it is felt to be a hardship; because the child perceives that no one but himself is subjected to its coercion. How much more easy is the obedience of the schoolboy? Instead of finding himself alone,—set apart from the family for submission to rules to which others pay no attention,—he is a member of a large community governed by one law, partaking of the same pleasures, and subjected to the same privations; and if, in addition to that undeviating regularity which governs the schoolboy by the power of association, and that obedience of numbers which impels him by the love of imitation, we add the recollection, that he and his comrades enact their own laws, and that they have no force but by the consent of those who obey them,—their gall and bitterness evaporate, and the young

legislator feels himself called upon for "a proud submission," and "a dignified obedience." We have often had boys brought to us with a character for rebellion worthy of a Wat Tyler, who, upon being put into the school, have submitted to the regulations, not only without a struggle against them, but apparently without a struggle with their own feelings.\*

One or other of these motives applies to boys of all ages; if they are too young to understand the mysteries of legislation, the love of imitating the actions of older boys is quite sufficient to produce the desired effect; and if they are too old to be sufficiently moved by the love of imitation, then the feeling that they had a share in framing the laws increases in strength.

We have dwelt the longer on this excellence which public education has over private, because it affords us an opportunity of showing, that, upon the very points which Rousseau, the great advocate for private instruction, considers most important, our means are superior to his:—but, controversy apart, the advantage is very great. How much of the happiness of children, and even of parents and teachers, is constantly sacrificed in struggles for power! or when, by extraordinary fortitude in the parent or

\* "Une règle invariable dans la distribution du temps," says M. Pictet, speaking of the pupils of Mr. Fellenberg, "rend inutile les moyens nécessaires ailleurs pour contraindre ou réprimer. Les enfans se sentent libres, parce qu'ils n'obéissent qu'à la force des choses, et que le caprice ne les atteint point."

tutor, his empire is confirmed, how often is he forced to do violence to his best feelings, in leaving children to suffer privations from which, if he had thought it right, he could so readily have guarded them !

“ Am I desirous,” says Rousseau, “ to teach *Emilius* to wake at a certain hour, I say to him, ‘ To-morrow morning, at six o’clock, I propose the diversion of angling, or I shall take a walk to such a place ; will you be of the party ? ’ He consents, and desires me to wake him. This I either promise or not, as occasion may require. If he wake too late, he finds that I am gone out : hence he sees his misfortune, if he do not learn to wake soon another time without being called.”\*

All this may be very right ; but we fear (we had almost said hope) that few parents could be found of sufficient nerve to leave a child to bear the weight of his disappointment. We have also a lurking apprehension that the feeling excited towards the parent in the mind of the child, by the exercise of such cold-blooded virtue, might outweigh all the value of the lesson. In a school it would soon be discovered, whether or not it is reasonable to expect a child to awake without being called ; if it were decided in the affirmative, a penalty would be affixed to the breach of the law, which, not being levelled at any one in particular, would be borne by the defaulter without a murmur. We know that Rousseau would lay great stress on the circumstance of

\* *Emilius*, Book II.



the penalty accruing naturally from the fault; but does the child think it at all natural, that when a word from the parent would have saved him from the bitterness of disappointment, that word should be withheld? We think not; and we consider it a great point gained both for parent and child, when such trials can be dispensed with.

Many of our readers will be reminded by these observations of Miss Edgeworth's little story of the blue jar, which Rosamond is permitted to buy of a druggist for a flower-pot, with the money which had been originally intended for the purchase of a pair of shoes. The disappointment of the little girl, when she finds that the colouring matter is not in the glass, but in the liquor which it contains, and the many misfortunes into which she falls for want of her shoes, are admirably told.

We feel, however, the same objection to this, as a *real transaction*, that we do to the treatment of poor Emilius. Considered only as a story, it is excellent. There the little reader sees in a few minutes a train of consequences, which are supposed to take up several days in unfolding. We have certainly no objection that our pupils should see the ill consequences of an imprudent choice, nor indeed that they should feel them; but we think that even the important knowledge so attained, (and that it is important we readily grant,) will be dearly bought, if it weaken, even in the slightest degree, the affection of a child to a parent.

To cut off children from all intercourse with servants is considered by some authors a very important object : and so it is, if it can be done without teaching them to despise their servants, or to consider them as an inferior race of beings ; of which, we think, there must be great danger in a private family. In a school, if the buildings are well arranged, opportunities for private communication with domestics may be readily prevented : indeed, the comparative smallness of their number, and their full employment, necessarily preclude any great degree of intercourse ; especially when the occupations of the pupils themselves are sufficient to fill up their time, and supply their minds with subjects of interest. It is from the idle, and consequently dissolute, servants of the rich, that bad morals are learnt. The laborious domestics of a school have neither motives nor leisure for the work of corruption : but, after all, the great safeguard consists in the number of companions that can be found by every boy in an extensive school, like himself in age and pursuit, with time and disposition to enjoy his society.

The undue ideas of self-importance which a child must gain in a course of private education, form a very powerful objection against it in our minds. To be the object of constant attention, as the *Emilius* of Rousseau must have been, would, without any vanity on his part, lead him into the error of supposing that himself and his education were the great

business of the world ; especially if we take into account the cumbrous conspiracies (for we can call them by no other name) that were formed against him ; some of which the boy, unless he had been an idiot, must have discovered. In one instance, all the neighbours and the *boys of the street* are trained to act against the little urchin, who wanders out of his father's house unaccompanied by his tutor. This adventure is justly ridiculed by the Edgeworths, who are well aware of the liability of private education to generate the feeling of which we speak, and are constantly warning parents to beware of it ; but it is almost in vain to guard against natural tendencies. The teacher who would do his duty, towards even one child, must have that one nearly as much in his thoughts as the master of a hundred ; perhaps more, because of the difficulty of governing and employing him by the aid of system : and this attention must, unless the parent or tutor put a very close and unnatural restraint upon his feelings, continually discover itself to the pupil. In a school, a boy must be left more to the operations of his own mind ; and, without any neglect, he is obliged by circumstances to use his own judgment, act upon it, and bear the responsibility of his choice. Figures are not arguments, or we should say, that at home the plant is in the constant sunshine of observation ; at school there is a pleasant and useful variety of night and day.

At school, too, a boy is a member of a commu-

nity; at home he bears but one relation to those around him,—that of inferior. At school, he is sometimes inferior, sometimes equal, sometimes superior: he sometimes listens to the opinions of his master; sometimes he discusses a question with his schoolfellows, and with the freedom which one boy feels and uses towards another; and sometimes he fills the honourable situation of teacher. Whoever has closely studied the human mind, will be aware that the trains of ideas excited in it, by the consideration of the same subject in these three separate characters, are very different. It is true, that where a family is large, this end is in some measure gained; but the reasons which prove that it is better to teach several pupils together than one, will also go to prove that the advantage increases with the number. In a family it can but rarely happen that a child ever finds his equal; he is either older or younger than his brothers and sisters, and generally either superior or inferior. Indeed, not only the numbers of a school are required, but that school must be a large one, before a boy can be at all times fairly matched with his equals; and, mistaken as our views may seem to those who disapprove of competition, we consider it of more importance that a boy should mix with his equals than that he should have any other society whatsoever.

It is a general law of our nature, that the closer the resemblance between two beings, the more powerful is the sympathy between them. We should

feel more horror at seeing the hand of an ouran-outang struck off with an axe, than at seeing such an operation performed on the paw of a dog; but neither of these sights would afflict us so much as to witness the mangling of a fellow-man by such a process.

If we carry forward this principle, we shall find that the more closely our companions resemble us in age, in taste, and in avocation, the more we are pleased with their society, the more we are influenced by their example, and the more complete is the tendency to competition between us. And here we join issue with Rousseau and the Edgeworths, though not without some trepidation: we should certainly feel more at ease in agreeing with them.\*

These writers have perhaps overrated the danger of competition, by observing its effects in private families. But the deductions drawn from observations in private families must not be applied without consideration to schools. In a family, the station of every child is settled by its birth, and every child is expected, and feels that he is expected, to maintain it. All competition with him

\* We have lately read the Life of Mr. Edgeworth, and we find that, in common with others, we had somewhat mistaken his opinions and those of his daughter on the subject of this chapter. Mr. E. says, in a letter to the Editor of Dr. Rees's Cyclopædia, "I most earnestly deprecate the conclusion that has been drawn from our books, that we recommend in general private education for boys. We know that, in general, private education is impracticable, and that it requires an uncommon coincidence of circumstances to make it in any case advisable."—*Life*, vol. ii. p. 393.

by those who are younger he resents as an attempt to deprive him of his rank; and all his endeavours to compete with his elders are resented by them for the same reason: whereas in a school, rank is not assigned by any such criterion; nor can it be, where the gradation of age is imperceptible, and where the boys at their entrance are in such very different states of preparation.

In a well-regulated school there are so many paths to be trodden, that there is no danger but that the little student, whose ambition has been wounded in one, will recover his spirits by success in another; meanwhile he is not reduced to the alternative of either renouncing society, or of making his rival his companion. At home, the victor and the conquered must constantly meet, and the latter must endure all the triumph of the former. At school, that triumph is greatly moderated by the chance of defeat—not perhaps from the former antagonist, but from others. The spectators, too, at school, would soon cease to sympathize with the successful competitor, if he plumed himself unreasonably upon his victory; and they, from their number, have a power which must have been witnessed to be fully appreciated. In point of fact, we believe we may safely appeal to any public teacher for the perfect innocence of this dreaded principle. Indeed, even among adults, whose feelings, especially of anger, are more lasting than those of children, we find that wherever there are sufficient numbers to protect the parties from the

*necessity* of associating together, the most serious and ardent struggles for pre-eminence produce no deadly feelings of animosity. How common is it, on the death of a conspicuous individual of any party in the State, for his former antagonists to speak of him in terms of kindness and praise?

Dr. Clarke, the traveller, relates, that when the English and French armies were opposed to each other in Egypt, the videttes on either side were in the constant habit of crossing to each other for water; and yet the competition between England and France has been of standing enough to generate all the ill effects which competition can produce. Indeed, it is worthy of remark, that whatever rancour is excited by competition, is seldom felt by competitors themselves, but by their partisans. Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox never felt, we are persuaded, so hostile to each other, as their friends did for them. Do not these facts show that competition carries off the baser feelings, and leaves a generous emulation in their place? To adduce a *rougher* exemplification: how frequently do two men, who have been quarrelling, and who have agreed to fight in consequence of their quarrel, shake hands before they begin their combat? This may, perhaps, in some instances be affectation; but if it were never sincere, affectation would not take the trouble to produce a counterfeit. Nobody would be imposed upon by base coin, if there were none other in circulation.\*

\* About twelve months ago, two boys at the head of the school,

We have already, in another part of this work, shown how far we are willing to depend upon *stimuli*; and that we by no means expect those magical results from emulation which some writers would attribute to it; but effects are sometimes referred to emulation, of which it cannot fairly be considered the cause.

Boys, like men, and perhaps like all animals, have a great indisposition to make exertions, unless they feel a tolerable certainty of success; now the exertions and success of their fellows in age and capacity form a kind of standard for them, by which they judge of their own powers. This standard a boy at home wants; and he consequently needs all the stimulus to exertion which is afforded by its presence; nor is it less necessary to the teacher. To estimate exactly what a pupil of given age, ta-

were stoutly contending for the first prize; and they were so nearly matched in talents, acquirements, and industry, that the chances were pretty nearly equal. In the middle of the session, an aged relative came from Ireland to visit the friends of one of the youths, whose home was at some distance from Hazelwood. The old gentleman could not be induced to forego the pleasure of his grandson's company: the boy was therefore obliged to go to his father's. It so happened, however, that several of the exercises determining rank for the two or three ensuing weeks were of a kind, as composition, &c. not to require personal attendance at the school. Under these circumstances, the youth commissioned his friend and rival to transmit to him, from time to time, information of what it was necessary for him to do; and also to receive and present the exercises as they were performed. The trust was fulfilled with cheerfulness and punctuality; and the trustee, though at the end of the half-year he lost the object of his labours, which was gained by his companion, secured a higher and more estimable reward in the enjoyment of his own feelings.—May 1825.



lent, and acquirement, ought to accomplish in given circumstances, is one of the most difficult problems the master is called upon to solve. Need we say, that many experiments upon the powers of many boys are necessary to give him the requisite experience?

Parents often mistake with regard to the powers of children : sometimes they expect them to do what no child ought to be expected to do, and sometimes they consider them quite incapable of performing tasks to which they are fully competent. The disposition which they have to consider their own offspring as prodigies is often a source of great misfortune to the poor children ; and the parent, in the bitterness of disappointment, frequently places his child as far below the just estimate of his talent as he had fondly raised him above it. Godwin well remarks, that the intense interest which a parent feels in the improvement of his offspring frequently renders him totally unfit for the office of teacher. In fact, extreme attention is almost sure to counteract itself : children cannot be manufactured into scholars. Education rather resembles agriculture ; and the tutor must take care that he does not fall into the error of plucking up the sprigs of knowledge which he has planted, in his anxiety to ascertain if they have taken root.

In a school, a boy naturally dull may, by remaining for a very long time in the lower classes, acquire a great deal of real information. We have seen in-

stances of boys, who entered with the reputation of being idiots, and who were almost so in reality, rise in the course of time, by dint of an uninterrupted study of elements, to a very respectable station among their companions. We firmly believe that the patience of no individual on earth could have held out against the stupidity of these unfortunate children, if he had had no other objects to engage his attention : and if the boys themselves had attended their studies under the feeling that their teacher's anxious eye was always watching their movements, we feel but little doubt that their minds would not have been in that state of perfect calmness, so necessary to the correct performance of any mental exercise by persons of weak intellect. By studying with their juniors, they always had the advantage of companionship ; occasionally they found opportunities of distinguishing themselves, and of tasting the pleasure of success. It might be thought that they would be overwhelmed with disgrace by filling a station so much below their age ; but schoolboys very soon learn to measure each other by their powers instead of their years ; and are too much accustomed to disproportion between talent and age, to feel much surprise even at an extraordinary instance of it.

The use of what might be called oblique instruction is by no means to be despised. " At home," says Quintilian, " a boy can learn only what is taught himself, but in schools he can learn what is

taught others." Children often acquire more information by attending to lessons in which they have no feeling of responsibility, than in studying their own. They have by this means an opportunity of retracing their steps, without all the drudgery or disgrace of going over the ground again in their own persons. With us, this is practicable without supposing a boy to neglect any of his duties, because, by our arrangements, some boys are engaged and others at leisure during the greater part of the day. In the great variety of studies which must be followed in a large school to suit the various dispositions and views of different boys, each pupil learns something even of those branches to which it forms no part of his duty to attend. The information so gained must of course be slight, but it may be far from unimportant in after-life. A striking illustration of this position may be found in the report of a judgment delivered by Lord Kenyon. The point to which his Lordship was addressing himself was the impolicy of rating the tolls upon a canal, to each parish through which it passed, according to the quantity of land covered with water. "Hard," said his Lordship, "would be the lot of the officers who are to make the rates in these several parishes; they would have to measure not only the length but the breadth of the navigation in each respective parish, and have to ascertain with precision, the exact quantity of land covered with water. Those difficulties would be insuperable, and

it would be in vain to think of rating at all if such were the rule."—*Rex v. Page. Term Reports*, vol. iv. p. 543.

Now, of course, we do not presume to impugn the correctness of Lord Kenyon's opinion in this case, which on other grounds might be very just; but certainly, as far as it depended on the reasoning we have quoted, nothing could be more fallacious. If the learned judge had ever conversed with a surveyor for five minutes in the course of his life, he must have known that the operation which he considers so insuperably difficult was performed daily. We have boys of fourteen, who could give practical proofs that this obstacle to the proposed method of rating, had no existence but in his lordship's imagination.

We have always found that whenever, by extraordinary attention, any study has been carried to a high pitch of excellence among our pupils, it has been sustained at that pitch for years without much labour on the part of the teacher. We have also found, that in those branches of education where it was most easy to record the acquisitions of the pupil, as in penmanship or drawing, this effect was most permanent; and, on the other hand, where the record was impossible, as in elocution, the effect was transitory.

Every school has a traditionary history, which ought by no means to be lost sight of by the master. He should take care to preserve as many little

monuments of the talent, and industry, and virtue of his pupils as he can collect; they will have a similar effect in the minor world to that which the events of a greater history have in the world of men.

It must not, however, be concealed, that if the conduct of a school has furnished many facts of an opposite kind, the master will have reason to wish that its history could be forgotten; unless his pupils, when they hear of the misdeeds of their predecessors, could also learn the punishment which the offenders had endured in their little community; or the pain they had experienced in the world, as consequent upon the bad habits which they had contracted, or the bad principles which they had imbibed. History may be injurious in a school, as it often has been in real life; but where there is power, there is the element of utility. It is the fault of the master, if the history of his school is not useful to him.

It would be an endless task to point out all the advantages which may result from the similarity between the little world of a school and society at large. That some evils may and do arise from the same cause we are also well aware, but this admission does not affect the question. Freedom is not unattainable, because some nations present examples of despotism. We do not wonder that persons who have only seen very defective plans of public education, should prefer to have their children taught at home. It is difficult to separate what is incidental

to a system from what is essential. We prefer a state of society for all individuals, whether children or men, and we feel no hesitation in laying it down as a general position, that all individuals are happier together than alone. But society might be so constituted, that a man would act wisely to become a hermit; and schools may be so governed, that a parent would best fulfil his duty by teaching his child at home.\*

Great stress is generally laid by the advocates of private education upon the superior morality of their pupils to those at public schools. We have already attempted to show, that the defects which are so unfavourable to moral character ought not to be considered as inherent in every system of public education.† Perhaps the detail into which we then entered, respecting the various motives to moral conduct which might be induced, and the various checks to vice which might be enforced, will be considered as doing something towards rescuing public education from the obloquy which has been cast upon it: if so, we may be allowed to ask, how a boy, in a system of private instruction, would meet with so many opportunities of exercising the manly virtues,

\* The able though flattering Reviewer of our first edition, in the *Oriental Herald*, adds an advantage to be derived from public education, which we take shame to ourselves for having omitted.—“The pupil” (he says) “has opportunity for forming those friendships and attachments for which, should he lose them, he will find no compensation or equivalent in the whole compass of human things.”

*Oriental Herald, Feb. 1824.*

† Chap. III.

as in intercourse with the numbers of a public school? In the latter situation, too, a boy learns not only by the pain and mortification which he endures as the consequences of his own transgressions, but he has an opportunity of learning without the bitterness of experience. So, perhaps we shall be told, may a boy at home, by the medium of books; but what story, even though true and believed to be true, can ever carry the interest of a real transaction? And if, instead of leaving him a mere spectator, we elevate the pupil to the rank of a jurymen or a judge, do we not provide for a very different impression upon his mind to any that can be produced by mere reading? To preserve the effect of the punishment which he has assisted to inflict, he must abstain from a breach of the laws in his own person: we give him an important character to support, and call upon him not to disgrace the judge by the misconduct of the schoolboy.\*

\* One of the effects of employing boys in offices of power, we had not anticipated when we constructed the system. It is, that they learn to weigh the pleasures against the toils of ambition. We can assure our readers, that there is sometimes considerable difficulty in filling the requisite offices, from the reluctance which the elder boys often feel to encounter the labour and responsibility of them. This early experience of the troubles of power, joined to the freedom from all unnecessary restraint, wonderfully tempers that impatience of control, those aspirations after manhood, which are the cause of so many evils, both to parents and children. We cannot say with the poet, that

“ ——— The brisk minor pants for twenty-one ;”

for we find rather a disposition to remain in the trammels of a school: and we have had frequent instances of boys preferring very earnest petitions to their parents, to suffer them to stay after the time fixed for their departure.

After having said so much on the subject of morals in that part of our work already referred to, we are unwilling to intrude further on the time and patience of our readers. One point more, and we have done.

We have before alluded to an opinion which prevails among parents, that a small school is better than a large one. But if there be any force in the arguments which we have adduced, this opinion must be founded in error. The system of jurisprudence which we have found so efficacious, could not be carried on without a large number. Public opinion, too, which we have found so powerful an ally, is evidently dependent on number for its strength. That exact classification of students with others of equal powers and attainments, the utility of which we have already attempted to show, cannot be effected without the aid of very large numbers; and indeed it must draw nearer to perfection with every addition to the school. In short, a small number of boys can no more enjoy all the advantages of a large body, than a few soldiers can go through the evolutions of an army.

The great principle of the division of labour is of course more applicable to a large number than to a small one. It seems no more probable that the same person should be perfectly qualified to teach two arts or two sciences, than that he should be able to follow two professions. This is felt, and the usual remedy is to engage the assistance of occasional masters; but



we put it to the recollection of our readers, whether the same attention is ever paid by the pupil to these occasional teachers, as to those who continually reside with them, and whose labours are united into system. With sufficient numbers, all these defects might be supplied. The head master, too, ought to be relieved from all necessity of taking any department of teaching himself, in order that he may be at liberty to attend to the regulation of the whole; to watch for opportunities of improving every part, and, by engaging his pupils in conversation, to seize the proper moments for exciting them to inquiry and reflection: in a word, by giving them all that instruction (so difficult to describe and so easy to conceive) which is not reducible to system, to unite all the advantages of both public and private education.

## CHAPTER IX.

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### OBSERVATIONS ON THE CAPACITY OF THE SYSTEM FOR PRODUCING MEN OF BUSINESS.

IF we were called upon to select one acquirement, which more than all others contributed to a man's comfort and usefulness, it would be that which is loosely termed "a talent for business." This phrase comprehends many important qualifications, some of which are more particular necessary to the director, others to the instrument; understanding by that name, him who carries orders into execution. The duties of the latter are punctual, intelligent, unhesitating obedience.

It would be impertinent to offer any reasons to prove the excellence of punctuality, or its general bearing upon the prosperity of its votaries; but we may be allowed to say that few persons appear to us to have a just understanding of the word. We do not mean that its etymology is very recondite, or that it is very difficult of definition. We do not mean to promulgate it as any discovery of our own, that *punctuality* is only a modification of *punctum*, or

*point*, and that a point can have no extent ; and yet we are afraid that if we stigmatized a person who came habitually, within a minute of an appointment, as wanting in punctuality, we should be held to have absurdly perverted the meaning of the word ; and certainly, such an approach to punctuality would entitle him to rank above most of his competitors. Indeed, a man who had attained to such a degree of excellence in that department might fairly rest satisfied and strive no further. But a degree of precision is requisite in learning, which may be very properly dispensed with in after-life. A gentleman who should observe with strictness all the regulations the *manège* on the back of his roadster, would justly incur the charge of formality ; and a lady in a ball-room, who should conscientiously perform every step by rule, would run the risk of gaining few admirers except her dancing-master. And yet exactitude is very necessary to the acquirement of both accomplishments.

Thus the rigorous punctuality which we exact, considered without reference to the principle of education just exemplified, appears ludicrous, as we know from the effect it produces on those who are newly exposed to it. We well recollect the face of unaffected astonishment exhibited by a teacher, soon after he came among us, upon receiving an intimation that he had not appeared at the muster until *nearly a minute* after the due time ! Yet these little savings, independent of their effect in teaching the art of

punctuality, are by no means to be despised. When multiplied by the number of persons whose time they economize, they amount to a very important sum.

The habit of executing orders with intelligence, is more difficult to induce than punctuality: since it cannot be directly taught, but must result from the love of excellence, a desire to oblige, and the general habit of observation and reflection.

The love of excellence, we have had reason to believe, is greatly promoted in the minds of young persons, by letting them see care and anxiety on the part of their teachers, that every occupation in which the scholar is engaged, whether important or unimportant, should be carried on in the most perfect manner of which it is capable. Few minds are so constituted as not to be gratified with excellence; although the labour of its production may sometimes overbalance the desire for its enjoyment. But when this labour, from custom, has become light, and when the enjoyment, from being habitual, has, like other luxuries, become a necessary, much has been done to ensure the permanent good taste of the pupil.

The desire to oblige must proceed entirely from the general cultivation of the good feelings. We may remark, that the absence of painful and very degrading punishments, of unnecessary coercion, and, more than all, of injustice, either on the part of the masters or the stronger boys, must allow a free scope to the kindly feelings both of

teacher and pupil. We may add also, that the number of the paths to distinction which are open among us, tends very much to banish that envy of success, the fear of which creates so much alarm in the breasts of some parents. Every boy to whom nature has not been extremely niggard, can find some employment in which he may earn reputation. Thus the *profanum vulgus* is reduced to comparatively a small number, and its influence on the manners and feelings of the whole body, proportionably diminished.

Observation and reflection, so necessary to the power of intelligent obedience, also depend on the general state of the pupil's mind. They cannot be induced for a particular occasion; but must "grow with his growth, and strengthen with his strength."

We know of no other means than that of exercising the faculties upon subjects at once interesting to them, and completely within their grasp. We do not often call upon boys to consider the excellences and defects of Greek or Roman constitutions: first, because it is difficult to create at an early age any intense interest on the subject; and secondly, because it is impossible to put them in possession of the facts on which the consideration should be founded. But the constitution of the school to which they belong, is naturally a subject of importance; and much of the knowledge requisite to form a judgment upon it, must be always familiar to them. At their age they can know but little of the

Areopagus, how it was constituted, or what influence it had on the minds of the Athenians : but they are well acquainted with their juries, and their committees ; they know exactly what are the powers of each, and see for what purposes they have been framed. Thus all their ideas respecting them are clear and vivid ; and are, therefore, much more likely to be dwelt upon by the mind, than the shadowy notions, which are all they can possibly have respecting objects so far removed from their sphere of action as those to which we have alluded. We, therefore, prize our little constitution quite as much, as furnishing materials for a high and important department of instruction, as for providing us with a valuable mode of government.

Dryden says of Shakspeare that " he did not see men through the spectacles of books."—This pithy expression of the merits of our great bard will not be lost on the reflecting teacher. We have no hesitation in declaring our firm conviction that many a fine mind has been lost by an exclusive attention to books. Reading may degenerate into a very idle method of spending time ; the more dangerous, as it has the appearance of something better. We could wish all our pupils, whenever they are not occupied in something really beneficial, to be engaged in no employment which might lull the feelings of self-disapprobation. We would rather see a man lie on a sofa, indolent without excuse, than find him running up and down, and into every hole and corner, like a dog ; supposing himself very busy, and accomplishing

nothing—“*Multa agendo nihil agens.*” There are men whose very indolence, by causing them to consider well every step, before they impose upon themselves the labour of taking it, has contributed to their success.

The inferiority of the *second-hand* ideas acquired by reading, to those gained practically, will readily be seen by comparing the different processes which the mind of the author and his reader undergo. The author observes *facts*, and deduces relations from them, by a series of strong mental exertions, of which the result only is registered. How much unseen labour must he endure before he can model his ideas into form? How many unsuccessful experiments must be made before he threads the mazes of a difficult argument? How many illustrations must be tried and changed, before he places his conclusions in a clear and satisfactory light? Numberless associations, therefore, will be suggested to the author, by a perusal of his own work, to which the reader must be an utter stranger. Nor does the disadvantage end here.—As all the ideas enter the reader's mind by the same process, and with equal ease, he is in danger of not distinguishing accurately between them. Facts, arguments, illustrations, dicta, march in review before him at an equal pace. Indeed to his mind they are, strictly speaking, all *facts*. They all depend, or may depend, on the evidence of testimony; and little observation is necessary to shew us how often the mere reader confounds

an opinion, or even a mere figure, with a fact or a demonstration. Ideas thus received are, so to speak, dead; they have lost the generative power, and when, by the process of decay, they themselves are gone, they leave no trace behind.

The only means of supplying the great defect resulting from receiving the unmodified thoughts of others, is for the pupil to observe, reflect, and at a proper age, compose originally. This is the true corrective of the habit of undistinguishing mental deglutition. As the abstinence from medicines which the apothecary imposes on himself, is much more strict than that which he requires from his patients, so authors are much less in the habit of giving implicit credence to each other, than of demanding it for themselves. If it be right to "give the reins of our imagination into our author's hands," it is far from wise to surrender those of our judgment. We are, therefore, of opinion, that when young persons can be led to think for themselves on subjects which are generally inaccessible to them, except through the medium of books, we have gained some assurance, that their knowledge in after life is likely to be more correct and comprehensive than that of others who have only enjoyed a single, and, as it appears to us, an inferior method of study.

The reader will be aware that we do not use the word *business* in a very restricted sense, or we should not have ventured on the foregoing remarks; which, if they are allowed to apply at all to the sub-



ject under consideration, can only regard qualifications which it is generally considered are far from necessary in the common walks of life. But we would understand by the word business every thing which regards the communication between one man and another, and we believe it will be found that the same general qualities which are required for a minister of state, or the commander of an army, would be highly advantageous to the agriculturist or the tradesman.

Having now considered generally the qualities requisite to the *instrument*, we shall proceed to those which are more particularly required by the director: first premising that, according to the old maxim, "He who is to command, should first learn to obey." Indeed, an acquaintance with the various duties of either station, is materially advanced by alternately filling both. If the master could know exactly the difficulties to be encountered by the servant, and the servant could know by experience the wants and wishes of his master, the happiness of both would be greatly increased. We have provided many opportunities for teaching by practice the art of commanding, and, by consequence, of obeying, and that at an early age; and we have found that a familiarity with power tends to show it in less glowing colours than those in which it usually appears to the young.

The first element in a good command is, that its execution shall be within the capacity of the instru-

ment. We shall not always find a minister so polite' as he who said to the Queen of France, in answer to an extraordinary request, "Madam, if it be possible, it *shall* be done, and, if impossible, it *must* be done!" It is evident that a knowledge of what can be effected by others, must be in some measure drawn from experiments made in our own persons. The power of executing *in propria persona* is also useful, as enabling the director to give the best species of proof that orders which are objected to as impossible, can be fulfilled.

Exactness and perfect intelligibility are excellent qualities in a command. Our boys have their attention perpetually called to the consideration of orders drawn up with great care and precision, and their practice in constructing laws must necessarily direct their minds to the subject.

The next care to issuing a good order is that of punctually ascertaining its fulfilment. Much has been done to provide for the execution of every ordinance which is promulgated. No ambiguity is permitted to exist, either with regard to the person who is to execute, or with respect to him who is responsible for seeing it executed.

The principle of the division of labour ought to be thoroughly understood by every one who is to have the direction of large numbers; we have carried it to a very considerable extent. Perhaps, in the opinion of some persons, we may have pushed it to a length somewhat extravagant, though we are not

ourselves aware of such an error : but it must never be forgotten, that whatever is to be taught, is the more intelligible for being somewhat exaggerated.— Characters intended for the mind's eye of children, should be written in *large hand*.

In order to choose the best ministers of his orders, and adapt the duties of each to his capacity, a director should possess a considerable power of estimating the various qualities of those around him. In this point of view it is of great advantage to a boy to be a member of a large community. The want of a sufficient number to furnish materials for extensive observation of character, we conceive to be among the most glaring deficiencies of private education. Our elections and public trials, and the provision which has been made among us for exciting every boy completely to develop himself, must offer some facilities to the study of character.

It is almost needless to say, that an ascendancy over the minds of others, is an invaluable acquisition to the man of business. The ease with which some persons mould all around them to their purposes, and the difficulty which others find in carrying any measure, however unexceptionable in itself, must often have struck the most careless observer : but it is not so easy to point out the cause, as to ascertain the effect. We are inclined to believe it results chiefly from agreeable manners, joined to firmness of purpose ; “ *Suaviter in modo fortiter in re,*” should be the motto of him who wishes to acquire this

power. We have seen great effects produced by a union of perseverance and immovable good temper, without the admixture of extraordinary talent. This acquisition, like all others, is best acquired by practice; and as it is one which requires great tact, it cannot be entered upon too early. With us the happiness of every individual, from the highest to the lowest, depends in great measure on the good opinion of his fellows; and among young persons temper is a requisite to popularity of the first order: in after-life the conduct of individuals in society is more exactly regulated than in early youth, and the restraints on temper are therefore more numerous, so that it becomes an object of not such vital importance, at least in the general intercourse of society.

The last point on which we shall touch in this place, is one which would well employ a whole chapter, or even a volume: we mean a practical acquaintance with the science of evidence. Perhaps no habit of mind has produced more misery in the world, than that of believing or disbelieving in contradiction to the laws of evidence. Hence the superstition which has debased and degraded mankind, and the bloody wars and cruel persecution consequent upon its dogmas. Hence, also, the disposition to resist all improvement, and remain satisfied with the most revolting absurdities. Hence, in private life, the devotion to quacks of all kinds—the potency of scandal—the misunderstandings—the ready ascent to marvels—imprudent speculations—hasty friendships—un-

founded enmities, and the whole train of prejudices.

It is curious to reflect on the *nostrums* employed in different ages and countries, for arriving at the truth, without the skill and labour necessarily attendant on accurate investigation. Sometimes we find accused persons proving their innocence, beyond all doubt, by the simple expedient of an oath ! By this means, Fredrigunda Queen of France cleared herself of several murders, and a good deal of adultery. Our Saxon ancestors were much attached to the plan of *compurgators* ; where the party who could produce the greatest number of persons to swear that they believed him, was adjudged to have spoken the truth.

Ordeals are familiar to every reader ; but as they have so lately taken their final departure from the law of the land, we must treat them with some tenderness. \*

We laugh now at the folly, or pity the ignorance which could for a moment imagine that truth could be elicited by such mummary ; but do we always evince a very complete acquaintance with the laws of evidence ourselves ? Is the maxim *audi alteram partem*, practically believed ? Or, when its observance is impossible, do we always subject such evidence as is within our reach, to the most rigorous investigation ? As far as our experience has gone, even the mere grammar of the science is but ill

\* Trial by combat was not abolished until the year 1818.

understood by society at large. The difference between moral and metaphysical truth, obvious as it would seem to be, is by no means generally felt; and though, perhaps, few would fall into the blunder of the enthusiast who thought of setting a controversy at rest by offering to go before a magistrate, and prove his creed on affidavit, yet many even among the educated classes of society, resent a slight on their opinions, as an attack on their veracity. Some persons have a compendious way of settling disputes, by what they call *splitting the difference*, forgetting that each party has it in his power, by running to a higher extreme than his opponent, to force the mean towards his own side. A similar mode of thinking must have given birth to the proverb, "there is no smoke without fire;" by which it is meant to be insinuated, that every charge must have some foundation. It is the habit of a pretty large class, to take their opinions from some oracle, whose dicta they receive with blind submission. It is very possible that by this assistance, they may often arrive nearer to the truth, than they would find practicable by their own unassisted exertions; but the means by which we arrive at certain conclusions, are often of more importance than the conclusions themselves. Examining facts, weighing arguments, and drawing inferences, form high and elevating employments of the human mind. We should be pleased to see a pupil of our own carefully investigating the different theories of the geologist, but whether he finally be-

came a Wernerian or a Huttonian, would be to us a matter of very small concern.

Another class takes great credit to itself for its incredulity — not considering that no merit can possibly attach to either belief or disbelief, which are involuntary acts. All that is praiseworthy, is intelligent, industrious, and candid examination. Indolent scepticism, while it is quite as unphilosophical as indolent credulity, is very often even more unamiable.

We have to beg the reader's pardon for wandering into these general observations; but we wished to show the extent of the evil before we attempted to point out its cure.

The first lessons in the science of evidence ought to be given by the parents. The mother should lead her child to investigate the properties of the objects which surround him. Of the manner in which this is to be done we have not a single word to say. This department has been so admirably filled by the Edgeworths, that any addition to their labours would be at once difficult and useless. The proof, by observation and experiment, is not only one of the best in existence, but it is the most readily appreciated. We have found the handicraft works, in which our pupils often engage themselves during the time which is at their own disposal, furnish great opportunity for exercise in the art of making experiments.

At the annual exhibition of 1822, a lecture on electricity was composed and delivered by an elder

boy, the apparatus for which, including the machine, was the unassisted production of his companions. One little fellow undertook to make an electrical orrery, which proved a severe trial of his patience: after he had finished the several parts, he was for a long time ardently employed in adjusting the movements. The child cried and worked, as pathetically as Alexander “sighed and looked;” but there the resemblance ended, for our young electrician was finally victorious; and we dare say, that during the half-hour of the lecture, he would not have changed places with the conqueror of the world. We say nothing here of the knowledge of mechanics or electricity, which he could not avoid gaining in the course of his labours, because that is not our immediate subject; but how much must he have increased his powers of conducting experiments;—what a knowledge of himself he must have gained!—how must he have rejoiced that he did not yield to his despondency; and how completely must he have become imbued with the conviction that it is not by his hopes or his fears, or by the opinions of others, but by actual experiment, that he is to judge of his capabilities!

So also we recollect one of our boys, in making a model of our *thermophorus*, (the apparatus by which a stream of warm air is sent through the school-rooms, during the winter season,) found some difficulty in constructing one of the valves, resulting from its minuteness, when executed according to the scale



which he had adopted. We suggested various materials, as pasteboard, thin wood, *latten-brass*, &c. but we found he had tried all, and could give excellent reasons for discarding each. Now, without dwelling on the advantageous exercise which the boy's inventive powers must have enjoyed, or his enlarged acquaintance with the nature of different bodies, let us consider for a moment how much he had learnt of the science and practice of evidence. He must have become accurately acquainted with the difference between reasoning, *à priori*, and *à posteriori*, at least, as applied to that particular subject. He found that his own speculations had been fallacious, and that those of his teachers had met with no better success; thus he would see the superiority of fact proved by experiment to authority; and he would also be able by the manual facilities which he must have gained, to carry his theoretical approbation of this kind of evidence into practice.\*

Of the opportunities which our pupils enjoy of becoming familiar with mathematical evidence, whether arithmetical, geometrical, or algebraic, little need be said here. We have thought that by directing their attention to methods of approximate solutions of mathematical problems, more frequently than is usually done, wherein the judgment is more exercised than in the process of exact solutions, we

\* See Appendix for a description of a steam-engine afterwards constructed by this boy.

have provided for an easy transition to moral reasoning ; which, depending altogether on probabilities, is not readily managed by those who have studied only mathematical certainties.

But it is to our jurisprudence that we chiefly look for the instruction of our pupils in the higher branches of the science of evidence. It can scarcely have happened to any person of observation, we should think, to witness the proceedings of a court of justice, without finding himself better qualified for the task of investigation than before. The accuracy with which every link in the chain of evidence is supplied and adjusted, and the severity with which it is tried ; the strict and patient attention given to the advocates on either side ; the different views in which the question appears during the discussion ; all tend to show him that to form a correct decision upon almost any point, calmness, impartiality, and much exertion of talent and industry, are absolutely requisite : and yet he labours under some disadvantages. Unless he be a lawyer, he is not likely to be sufficiently informed on technical points to understand the reason of every proceeding : the merits of some rules of evidence, for instance, are not such as would be readily appreciated by the common sense of the auditor. With us, great care is taken to make the whole business of the court so intelligible, that none but the very young and inexperienced can find the least difficulty in following it from beginning to end : indeed when it

is recollected that the laws are, at stated periods, explained to the junior boys, and that many of their schoolfellows must always be at hand to whom every difficulty is familiar, it can hardly happen that any one will find many obstacles, in the way of his completely understanding every case.

In the world at large it is comparatively rare for an individual to enter a court of justice, except as a spectator. The whole number of judges, jurymen, barristers, attorneys, witnesses, and parties, engaged at any one assize, compared with the whole "body of the county," must be very small. With us, the number actively employed generally amounts to a fifth or sixth of the community; so that our sittings being held weekly, each boy will, on an average, be called on to fill some department or other in the court, once in five or six weeks. Thus in the course of time, he runs the whole round of duties and gains a practical knowledge of all: filling each office with the more ability, from his acquaintance with the others. As a jurymen, he will decide on the value of evidence with a better chance of being correct from having been a witness: as an advocate, he will know how the minds of others are to be affected from having served on the jury; and as a judge, his want of the *viginti lucubrationes annorum*, will be in some degree compensated by his familiarity with the feelings and modes of thought of all over whom he presides.

## CHAPTER X.

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### HINTS TO PARENTS.

As it is important to the public teacher to know the opinions and wishes of parents on the subject of government and instruction at school, so it cannot be useless to the parent to be informed what state of mind and body the public teacher would desire his pupil to possess on coming under his care ; and consequently, what would be the anterior discipline which he would recommend. Judging from our own feelings and experience, we think we may safely take upon us to say for the whole body, that a pupil who commences his course of education at school with a high capability of acquisition, and with little or nothing to unlearn, is in a much more desirable state than one who brings to the undertaking considerable positive acquirements ; if, at the same time, his future exertions are clogged by bad habits of mind and body.

To begin with the body, which appears to us to be in childhood the principal object to which attention ought to be paid. It would be diverging too widely to enter into any discussion on the physical treatment of young children. The reader will find

much valuable information on this head, in Dr. Carpenter's work on education, to which we have already referred, and also in Haden's Journal of Popular Medicine; but although the object should be to keep the child in a high state of physical health, yet the mind must not be neglected; since, as a very slight experience will be sufficient to convince every person, attention to the mind is an essential means for preserving the health of the body: mental instruction, however, should only be regarded at this early stage as a means, and not urged as an end. The child must be taught how to regulate his passions; his thoughts must be provided with agreeable employment, and for this purpose his reason and his imagination must be cultivated to a certain extent. He must be trained to good habits, and preserved with vigilant anxiety from bad ones. But all this time health is the desideratum.

A course of treatment founded on this principle, will also cultivate the kindly affections. Make a child healthy, and you make him happy; and when he is happy himself, he may be easily trained to respect the happiness of others.

Health is intimately connected with curiosity, or the disposition to enquire,—the best of all motives to the acquisition of knowledge, and which ought, therefore, to receive great indulgence, even when it prompts a child to visit his parents with the misery of a cross-examination.

We are convinced that the best means of instruct-

ing young children is by conversation. A child, therefore, should feel himself quite at ease, or it is impossible he can converse freely, and open his mind to his teacher ; but nothing so tends to cramp him, as the fear of having his queries repulsed. Grown persons forget sometimes that to ask relevant questions, presumes acquirements which it is not fair to expect in a child. We are aware that the inquisitiveness of children is frequently difficult to bear with temper ; but it is a difficulty which must be overcome by all who are sincerely ardent in the work of education. A simple and candid avowal of ignorance where it exists, that is to say, on many parts of nine subjects out of ten on which children inquire, we have found an excellent mode of cutting the Gordian knot. Children will be satisfied with being told that a subject is at present too difficult to be understood by them, especially if the expectation is at the same time held out that, as they grow older, they will become able to master it. On this head, however, we should perhaps do better to refer the reader to " Practical Education," and Miss Edgeworth's works generally, than hazard any observations of our own ; which, if they are not erroneous, at least incur the danger of being trite.

It has appeared to us, from the few experiments which we have had occasion to make, that a more elevated tone of conversation may be advantageously used than is generally addressed to children. What are called hard words, are not very terrible to child-

ren who pass much of their time with their parents. We have now playing at our side a child of three years and a half old, who uses the words biped and quadruped, for instance, without pedantry or affectation, but with a perfect knowledge of their meaning. It is evident that a child so exercised must possess considerable facilities for learning to read, in as much as the language of books will already be familiar to him.

The business of teaching to read, after all that has been done to improve it, is even yet in a state of barbarism. There is not enough for the child to do—not a sufficient number of the faculties employed. If some operation analagous to printing, and sufficiently simple to be performed by children, could be invented, we have no doubt the time, and what is of more importance, the temper of both teacher and pupil would be greatly economized. While the difficulty remains in its present state, all that can be done is, to increase the number and force of motives. Let the child have an ample supply of prints to lead his mind to desire such information as children's books usually furnish; and let his imagination be cultivated by hearing stories. This faculty has perhaps latterly been somewhat too much neglected in early education. Persons who have not tried the experiment would be astonished to see how easy it is to divert the thoughts of a child from pain and disappointment, by appeals to the imagination. The teacher who has cultivated his little pupil's imagina-

tion, may play off the mind against the body, and exchange tales for gingerbread with great profit.

The wish to read being thus excited, and its advantages magnified on all fair occasions by the teacher, books ought now to be provided with a liberal hand, that the child may have a chance of consulting his taste in selection. The teacher should be careful to induce, as far as he can without coercion, stated habits of taking reading lessons, which cannot at first be too short; and which never ought to be continued after the child is fatigued.

Drawing, mental arithmetic, and the rudiments of natural history, may all be taught in a certain degree at a very early age; and a little skill will make them agreeable exercises, even to the solitary child; but those who have witnessed the surprising effects produced by infant schools, will see at once how the happiness of children and the ease of teachers are advanced by collecting the little pupils into a body, and acting upon them with the force of society. When the discussions which have been excited by the friends and opponents of Mr. Owen shall have been forgotten, and however the question between them shall be finally settled, the founder of infant schools will ever be remembered as a benefactor to his country and to the world.\*

We hope the time will soon arrive when either

\* See Mr. R. D. Owen's "Outline of the System of Education at New Lanark," and Wilderspin's "Infant Education."



infant schools will be established for the children of the middle and higher classes, or such regulations adopted in those on the present footing, as may allay all rational fears of moral or physical danger arising from indiscriminate admission.

Social education, valuable at every period of life, is more and more important in proportion to the youth of the pupil: for one of the earliest motives which can be brought to bear upon a child, is love of imitation; a motive which is powerful always in proportion to the number whose conduct is the object of attention to the pupil. It is one of the most delightful sights that a parent can witness, to see how this motive, in the infant schools, stands in the place of that coercion which in solitary education is in some degree unavoidable. The present pain which coercion inflicts, both on teacher and child, is by no means light; but when it is used to any considerable extent, its consequences are deplorable. Speaking from an experience of many years, and from experiments whose results have been all on one side, we can most conscientiously say, that we never found a case, where the most unbridled indulgence had produced so much moral and mental evil, as we have seen effected by harshness. Severity produces fear, an habitual state of fear becomes cowardice; and a coward is a liar.

It would be wasting time to prove that lying and cowardice are great evils; in after-life they have their full measure of reprobation; but during the

period of education, if their consequences are not so fatal, their immediate pressure is even more afflict-  
ing. The operation of cowardice and falsehood, is to shut up the thoughts and feelings of the pupil from the inspection of his teachers. His mind loses its transparency, and becomes therefore exceedingly difficult for the teacher to examine and direct. A liar, too, is generally a sceptic; he has no more confidence in others, than he feels he deserves for himself: so that the sympathy between him and his instructor is utterly destroyed. Meanwhile he is become unpopular with his school-fellows, and shame by its frequency has ceased to influence him. It is easy to perceive that an individual so shut out from the delights of society, would soon lose all the kindly feelings; and hence another difficulty in reclaiming him.

It will not, we hope, be imagined from what we have said, that we are insensible to the bad effects of excessive indulgence; we have suffered too much from the selfishness, the unruly passions, caprices, indolence, and helplessness of spoiled children, to retain any very strong prejudices in their favour. All we mean to say is, that if the parent must err, let it not be on the side of severity. The feelings of the spoiled child are not at war with society; and all those powerful motives which result from the congregation of numbers, alike in age and pursuits, and on which we have so frequently insisted in the course of this work, may be brought to bear upon

him, and render his cure as nearly certain as almost any thing human can be.

At seven years of age a boy of average growth and talents ought to be qualified for entering the school where it is intended he should remain : which, if it be conducted on what we consider good principles, will be fit to receive him. He will have nothing to fear from the tyranny of elder boys, but every thing to hope from their encouragement and assistance; nor will a harsh and indiscriminating system of discipline urge him to exertions beyond his years.

It is useful to the pupil to be early accustomed to witness degrees of excellence far superior to his own. His ideal is raised, and inordinate self-satisfaction is duly repressed. No individual at any age ought long to remain at the head of his competitors. If the nursery, the school, and the university, could be connected by insensible gradations, several great advantages would be gained. The individual would pass from the one to the other, at the exact moment when the step was most desirable. On the one hand, he would not remain to imbibe self-conceit, by comparing himself only with his inferiors; and on the other, he would not be prematurely raised into a sphere above his qualifications. Perhaps, also, if the collegian could match himself more frequently with men engaged in active life, he would suffer no injury by the exercise. It is pretty enough to hear a child recite one of Mrs. Barbauld's hymns, with

due action and emphasis; but we could wish to check him from strutting about the nursery, and triumphing over his little brothers and sisters: and this is most easily done by bringing him into society where such acquisitions are common.

Our advice in the choice of a school will, perhaps, be considered as coming from a suspicious quarter: we shall however throw out our opinions, and leave them to be adopted or rejected, as they approve themselves to the mind of the reader. Suppose the parent to have formed the ideal of a perfect school: what are the best means for ascertaining which, among existing establishments, approaches nearest to his wishes? The best evidence, if it could be had, is the effect which any given school has produced in forming the character of the adults who have been educated there: because that education must be the best, which effects the best result upon the character of the individual, at that time of life when his conduct is most important to society. But it is obvious that the difficulty of obtaining such evidence is extreme. Take a given man, educated at a given school: first his early education must be known. Where is an accurate record to be found of his habits, dispositions, and acquirements, at the time of his entrance? Secondly, the regularity or irregularity of his attendance should be known. Thirdly, how far the labours of the teacher were promoted or retarded, by the co-operation or counteraction of the pupil's friends. The time he remained at school; his em-

ployments, associations, and state of health, after his departure must also be known ; and then comes the most important consideration of all ; namely, how far he is in native talent above or below the average of other men ; and this latter point can only be settled by examining such a number of individuals, as may enable the enquirer fairly to presume that he is in a situation to strike an average. It appears, therefore, clear to us, that unless parents, like parliamentary committees, had " power to send for witnesses and papers," they would make but little of their examinations : the difficulties of which we have not quite enumerated even yet, for in the time which must have elapsed since the individuals in question left the school it may have altogether changed its character, and may retain nothing of identity, but its name.

The only practical application of *a posteriori* evidence to the choice of a school, seems to be the comparison of one school with another ; and even here some obstacles will be found to stand in the way of a just result. The schools to be compared, should consist of boys of equal rank in life, that their previous preparation may have been equal ; since the children of the educated classes will, as a general rule, be found to enter upon their course of education at school with great advantage over their inferiors in station. It may appear an unnecessary caution, but we must be allowed to stipulate that an actual examination of both schools shall take place : for, if while the test

of scrutiny is applied to one school, the other is judged of by computation, the latter will have an unfair advantage. It is almost proverbial that estimated knowledge is above the reality. Every man in his own person must have felt the truth of this observation: he must have found, that however exact he considered his knowledge on a particular subject, it would seldom perfectly stand the test of a practical application.

Another difficulty may arise to the parent, from want of practice in the business of education. It is astonishing how empty a boy may appear of knowledge under the hands of one examiner, whom another shall clearly show to be well stocked. The power of displaying their wealth, and hiding their poverty, is seldom possessed in any great degree by very young persons. In their elders, this power often stands in the place of riches; and hence many of the errors into which the unprofessional examiner is likely to fall. It is a natural, but a very fallacious mode of comparison, to estimate a boy's progress by what the examiner recollects of himself at a similar age. Few men are aware how much they owe to the silent increase of knowledge, and how much to a greater power of making their knowledge, so to speak, increase itself; for instance, if a man understood all the words of a Latin sentence, except one or two, analogy, context, or invention would either put him really in possession of those remaining, or would enable him to furnish a meaning for

them sufficiently plausible to impose on others, and perhaps on himself. It is evident that these advantages would be possessed by the boy, in a very inferior degree, if at all; and therefore the two individuals bringing to the contest the same amount of acquirement, would meet on very unequal terms. It is, then, very possible that a man, without having paid much attention to any particular art or science, after leaving school, may find himself more than a match for a boy, who may not, however, be at all inferior to what the examiner was at his age. ———, aged thirteen, at his examination, upon entering among us, thus translated the following passage from *Cæsar de Bello Gal.* iii. 5, which he had construed at a former school.—“Itaque T. Labienum legatum in Treviros qui proximi Rheno flumini sunt cum equitatu mittit.” “Therefore, with T. Labienus and the ambassador into the Treviri, who are the greatest of the river Rhine,” &c. It is evident that any grown person who knew as much of Latin as the boy must have done even to write this nonsense, would have been able to extract the author’s meaning.

In spite of all these difficulties, there are men—and men of talent too—who seem to think the mind of a boy “easier to be played upon than a pipe,” and esteem themselves capable, without any practice of “sounding him from his lowest note, to the top of his compass.” Their patient, however, might answer them in the words of Hamlet, “Though you

can fret me, you cannot play upon me." A philosopher of this sect, some time ago, being dissatisfied with the progress his sons had made at a certain school, and wishing to prove to some friends the justice of his charges against the establishment, called up his boys to an examination, which commenced and concluded as follows: "Come, you fellows, what have you learnt at ——; if you have learnt any thing, out with it"—*i. e.* favour us with your opinions *ex tempore* on "men and things in general."

Not only a general knowledge of the science and practice of education is requisite to the candid examiner, but he ought to be acquainted with the particular methods by which the pupil has been taught. Much of what a boy learns may be compared to the scaffolding of a house; of no use except inasmuch as it gives facilities for building the edifice, and which may be discarded when the work is completed. It would be unfair to try our school by an examination into the familiarity of the boys with "*As in præsentî*" and "*propria quæ maribus*" which they do not learn; but, on the other hand, we ought not to shrink from an enquiry into their knowledge of the principles of grammar generally, or their application to the Latin tongue in particular. So would it be equally unfair to measure the care of the preceptor, and the industry of the boy, in a school conducted on the received plans, where so much time is expended on the grammar-book, by



calling on the young pupil to construe. Comparison of plan with plan is another matter ; but this must wait until the friends of each have accomplished the end in view. Inattention to this distinction may be the cause of great injustice both to teacher and pupil. For instance, if a boy learn French by the grammar, one of his earliest lessons would perhaps be to conjugate the auxiliary verb *être* ; with every termination of which, in both numbers, and in the three persons, he ought, therefore, soon to become familiar ; but with us, as he would begin by construing passages chiefly in the narrative form, it is evident that, although he might increase his vocabulary very considerably, become generally acquainted with the inflections of the various parts of speech, and even acquire some familiarity with the idiom of the language ; yet from his having rarely met with verbs in any but the third person, such a word as *étiez* might be unintelligible to him. It is clear, therefore, that a very erroneous conclusion would be formed, by estimating the knowledge of French respectively possessed by two boys educated on these different plans, according to their familiarity with the terminations of this auxiliary.

As might be expected from what has been already said, great mistakes are often made by inferring from ignorance on one part of a subject, a total unacquaintance with it. Some time ago, a young gentleman entered the school, possessed of highly respectable talents, and whose attainments did great

credit both to his own industry and the care of his former preceptors. Among other authors, we found he had construed great part of Sallust, and in particular, the whole of the Jugurthine war, which he could translate *ex tempore*, without much difficulty ; and yet, when we questioned him respecting the man who gives name to the narrative, he informed us that Jugurtha was a Roman general ! and being somewhat puzzled we suppose, after such an assertion, to find a proper office for Marius, he called him “ a person who assisted Jugurtha in the management of the war ! ” The boy’s attention, we presume, had been confined to philology ; and if so, the more laborious and exact his tutors had been in their verbal instruction, the more completely would his mind be fixed on mere words, and drawn away from any consideration of the subject matter. If, however, the foregoing examination had been the only one made, how natural the inference would have been, that a boy who knew so little of the story, never could have translated it with any approach to correctness.

Evidence *a posteriori* being thus encumbered with obstacles, it may perhaps be wise for the parent to direct his attention to *a priori* evidence ; which, though inferior in species, may be accessible in a degree so superior to the former, as to make it on the whole much more satisfactory. Perhaps he will think that, where he finds the regulations of a school pursuing those principles which general experience

has proved most conducive to excellence in other departments of human action, and where he has fair reason to believe that the plans are followed up with the requisite industry, talent, and information, he is furnished with better materials for coming to a practical conclusion, than if he were to incumber himself with the examinations to which we have alluded.

The question appears to us to be one of great difficulty ; our own opinions upon it are far from being settled, and they have considerably changed within the last few years.\*

Supposing the parent to have made his choice, let us now consider what ought to be his expectations. One of the most common errors into which he falls, is that of too great an anxiety about specific acquirements ; forgetting that when the powers of body and mind are thoroughly developed, and the art of their general application is learnt, the pupil will be able to turn them into any particular direction, with comparative ease. Let the first stage of education, therefore, be, to call out the powers both mental and physical ; and here we may remark, that the absence of coercion very much promotes this end. It is true, that the application of them to particular arts and sciences, tends to their developement, and therefore the three branches of education, developement, general application, and specific application, must, to a certain degree, receive a conjoint study ;

\* See page 173.

still it will remain true, that the general object should at first be developement, and therefore the parent should not be afraid of what he may call a dissipation of his boy's faculties. He must not say, "I don't want my boy to be a rope-dancer, and therefore you need not teach him gymnastics;" or, "as my boy will be a clergyman, and not an engineer, I do not think it worth while for him to spend much of his time on the mathematics." He should reflect, first, that in a school, it would be impossible in the early years of a boy's education, before he has acquired the power of self-government, to give him a distinct line of motion; for that to a great extent the whole body must act in unison. Secondly, that variety of pursuit is necessary to a developement of all the powers, and that it will be time enough to confine him to specific pursuits, when his faculties are strengthened and matured by a more general application.

It sometimes happens that parents do serious injury by the impatience of which we have spoken. They ought to be satisfied at first with the conviction that a child, whose habits and feelings are well directed, must acquire a great deal of knowledge which cannot be reduced to language, or which does not come under the parent's regard, because it has no conventional rank in education. A boy of enquiring mind, and vigorous bodily powers, even in roving about the fields, must of necessity acquire a great deal of information, which, though telling for

little in the "measure and value" of a schoolmaster's "estimate," is of as much, or more practical utility, than many of the subjects which he is called upon to learn. It may be as useful to a boy in after-life, to know the difference between parsley and hemlock, at sight, as to recollect the distinction between a rhombus and a rhomboid. Perhaps, if he were to forget both, no great practical evil might follow; but looking to the exercise of the powers of observation and comparison, who will say, that the boy was not as usefully employed when sitting on a bank with a stalk of each plant in his hand, as while poring over the wood-cuts of his Euclid. We are the more anxious on this point, as it is too often the cause of differences in opinion between the parent and the public teacher.

While we are upon the "*irritamenta malorum*," let us not forget to say a word on the wish so naturally felt, and so earnestly expressed by parents, that their children should write to them very frequently. This appears to be a very reasonable request; and yet it is often the cause of more vexation, both to teacher and pupil, than can readily be imagined. It cannot, however, be doubted, that the habit of correspondence between a boy and his friends is extremely valuable, whenever it can be made pleasant: it keeps alive and in vigour the best feelings of the heart, it strengthens all the motives to improvement; and it furnishes exercise for a species of composition indispensable in after-life. We, therefore, claim with

confidence, the assistance of the parent in smoothing the difficulties which young people feel in acquiring facility in writing letters. The practice should be commenced at an earlier age than is customary: and the parent may in the first place try to create an interest in a child's mind by writing letters to him.

A month or two ago, the little boy before mentioned, (three years and a half old), received a letter from his father, who was on a journey, in language which the child could understand, and on topics in which he felt an interest. He was greatly delighted with it; he often brought it up to be read, sometimes for his own benefit, and sometimes for that of a younger brother to whom he was anxious to impart his own feelings on the subject; and he keeps it safely deposited among his choicest treasures. He wished to send an answer, and his mother guiding his hand, he wrote one of his own dictation, with the exception of a few slight changes which were proposed to him, and to which he assented. It seems probable that by practice like this, he will have conquered most of the difficulties of epistolary composition before he is aware of their existence. It is evidently much easier to answer a letter, than to write the first, and that is all which should be expected for some time.

The intelligent parent of one of our pupils adopted a plan with respect to his own boy, the good effects of which we have witnessed: he began by proposing easy questions on the boy's tastes, pursuits, compa-

nions, advancement, &c. ; and he was satisfied with very short answers. He then requested his son to propose questions to him on affairs at home, to which he promised a speedy attention and he *kept* his promise.

We strongly recommend this plan to other parents, and perhaps we may be allowed to suggest, that the present work will furnish ample materials for questions which must always be interesting to the schoolboy : more especially to those who are acting on the system which it lays down. After a time the parent may confine himself to writing answers, and expect his son to take the lead in the correspondence : but we can hardly hope that at any age, boys will be found so faithful to their epistolary duties, as to write very frequently if their letters are not sometimes answered. As far as our experience goes, a single-handed correspondence seldom flourishes, except in novels : there, indeed, we often find characters who appear to exist for no other purpose than to minister to the curiosity of their friends. Now and then, we meet with an equally pure spirit of beneficence in real life ; but we cannot say that we have seen the gratitude of the world at all commensurate with the length to which these philanthropists carry their labours, and we therefore pause before we call very earnestly on our pupils to imitate them.

Many parents have a strong desire that their sons

should study some system of book-keeping at school. We have a great objection to employ our pupils in keeping a set of imaginary accounts, for reasons which will occur to every reader of our book, who has proceeded with us thus far. Still, we are by no means insensible to the advantages at which the parent aims, though we differ with him as to the means by which they are best acquired. It will have been seen, that we record the real transactions of the school with great minuteness, and that the boys assist in keeping the accounts necessary for that purpose. Thus they study what Mr. Bentham calls the science of *recording*, and they see that every account is kept on such a plan as is best fitted for the particular purpose. Having thus studied the general principles of the science, we have reason to believe they find little difficulty in applying them to any particular branch to which they may have occasion to direct their attention after leaving school. An instance has come to our knowledge, in which a boy who lately left the school, was able to suggest improvements in the mode in which the accounts of a mercantile establishment were kept, a very short time after he entered the counting-house.

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We had intended to say a few words respecting the claims which the public teacher has on the



parents of his pupils for co-operation and sympathy in his cares and exertions ; but we happen to cast our eyes on the following passage in " Practical Education," which our readers must permit us to subjoin.

" Besides bestowing some attention upon early education, parents who send their children to school may much assist the public preceptor, by judicious conduct towards children during that portion of the year which is usually spent at home. Mistaken parental fondness delights to make the period of time which children spend at home, as striking a contrast as possible with that which they pass at school. The holidays are made a jubilee, or rather resemble the saturnalia. Even if parents do not wish to represent a schoolmaster as a tyrant, they are by no means displeased to observe that he is not the friend or favourite of their children. They put themselves in mean competition with him, for their affection, instead of co-operating with him in all his views for their advantage. How is it possible that any master can long retain the wish or the hope of succeeding in any plan of education, if he perceives that his pupils are but partially under his government ? if his influence over their minds be counteracted from time to time by the superior influence of their parents—an influence which he must not wish to destroy. To him is left the power to punish, it is true ; but parents reserve to themselves the privilege to reward.

The ancients did not suppose that ever Jupiter could govern the world without the command of both pain and pleasure. Upon the vases near his throne depended his influence over mankind."

"School-masters and tutors should never become the theme of insipid ridicule; nor should parents ever put their influence in competition with that of a preceptor; on the contrary, his pupils should uniformly perceive that from his authority there is no appeal, except to the superior power of reason, which should be the avowed arbiter to which all should be submitted."

In extracting this passage we had a double purpose in view. We wished to appeal to the opinions of able and disinterested writers, on the line of conduct which ought to be pursued towards the public teacher, and we wished at the same time, to offer our testimony to the great improvement which must have taken place, since the time when this picture was drawn. For ourselves, we are bound to acknowledge, that so far from suffering under the evils described by the Edgeworths, we have every day reason to be grateful for the assistance we receive from parents, in carrying our plans into full operation. Nor ought we in this expression of our feelings to forget our pupils. Many valuable suggestions for the improvement of the system have been furnished by the elder boys; and we may say of all, that what the Edgeworths were afraid would "be

thought an Utopian idea of a school," actually exists. "They improve by mixing with numbers in the social virtues, without learning party-spirit; and though they love their companions, they do not, therefore, combine together to treat their instructors as pedagogues and tyrants."

## APPENDIX.

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### REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS.

THE following observations were appended to a report submitted by one of the teachers to the conference about four years ago, on the state of the rewards given by the different teachers for superiority in the performance of the school exercises, and of the fines enforced for their neglect. This report was preparatory to the adoption of a uniform scale for the guidance of all.

“ Having laid these facts before the conference, I forbear, for the present, from drawing out the proposed scale. The examination into which I have been necessarily led, of the principles by which rewards and punishments ought to be regulated, has produced some change in my own mind, and I shall consequently find alterations necessary in my own department. A discussion by the whole conference of these principles will, in all probability, give them a new modification.

“ Principles must sometimes bend to circumstances; or, to speak more correctly, one principle must sometimes bend to another, either of higher importance, or of more cogent necessity. Judging from my own arrangements, there may be apparent anomalies which are suffered to exist, not because they are unseen, but because it seems impossible to remove them without producing others more mischievous.

“ I should, therefore, feel myself much assisted by hearing from each teacher, his reasons for the plan which he has adopted.

It may be that he acts on principles which it might be well for all of us to apply ; or, perhaps, there are circumstances in the department to which he gives his attention, demanding an aberration from the path pursued by the others. On the other hand, it is possible that the whole body may reconcile discordant principles more completely than the individual has been able to do. But at all events, one advantage must accrue : each teacher will be satisfied, that the discrepancies between his own plans and those of others, do not result from contrariety of opinion, but from difference of circumstances.

“ I shall now proceed to the principles themselves, in the hope that they will receive from the conference a complete, and even rigorous investigation. If they are mistaken, let their errors be exposed. I, of course, believe them to be just and well-founded, or I should not employ the time of the conference in scrutinising them : as being my own, I may, perhaps, feel a bias in their favour ; but as it is of infinitely more consequence to me, to be right to-morrow than to be proved to have been right yesterday, I shall exert myself to reduce that bias as much as I can.

“ 1st Principle.—*Simplicity of effect is desirable.*

“ If a boy do not completely understand, or, at least, feel the operation of the motive, it is impossible that he should be fully impelled by it, and, therefore, as respects him, a part of it may be said not to be in existence.

“ 2d Principle.—*It is advantageous when punishment can resemble a scale of precipices, instead of an inclined plane. No one should slide into evil.*

“ The intention of punishment is to produce a revulsion of the feelings. Almost any quantity of pain may be borne, if it come on gradually, and if the mind and body have time to accustom themselves to its endurance.

“ 3d Principle.—*Rewards may resemble an inclined plane.*

“ Rewards and punishments differ in principle as much as in degree. A reward is intended to furnish a motive for conti-

ning and accelerating a progress towards excellence; while punishment, as it has been already stated, is to stop and change a course. Yet it is well, when the degrees of excellence can be definitely marked, to furnish the candidate with a succession of objects of somewhat difficult attainment. 'We should aim,' says Johnson, 'at the flight of the eagle, if we only reach that of the sparrow.' This appears to me very just; if we make the sparrow our model we may perhaps only equal the goose.

"4th Principle.—*When conduct cannot be definitely graduated, it is better that punishment should slide.*

"Every regulation must respect the feelings of those who are to enforce it. It is revolting to award a great difference of punishment in two approximating cases. When the line can be drawn by a general rule, that is, when the conduct can be definitely graduated, then, as respects the individual, it is *fate or chance*, which makes the difference, and the judge is merely ministerial; but in the class of cases under consideration, he has not only to pronounce that a certain line has been overstepped, but he has to draw the line itself. The effect of applying *scaling* punishments instead of *sliding* ones to this class of cases, will naturally be, to create a large tract of debateable ground between good and evil. The truth of this observation I consider proved by a reference to page 3 of this report.\* In the general examination therein mentioned, it appears that the majority of the boys are in a state of cipherage. It is impossible that these boys can have made equal exertions, and it is improbable that they are all travelling the same course. It seems likely, that some may be advancing and some retrograding. I do not mean retrograding as measured from year to year, but as measured from week to week. Now it is important, that the slightest inflexion of his course should be felt by the pupil, and that the fact should be impressed on his memory. We may safely depend on the daily checks, for producing that revulsion of feeling before mentioned. This examination, may be, perhaps, consi-

\* The part of the report which is referred to, is not here given.—It states that at the weekly examinations of the penmanship, the greater part of the boys were neither rewarded for good, nor fined for bad work.

dered as a mode of informing the mind of the pupil, as to the state of his general progress ; and in that light the more nice the adjustment of reward and punishment, the more exact the information to the boy.

“ 5th Principle.—*The quantum of reward and punishment should be just enough to produce the desired effect, and no more.*

“ The danger of over stimulus is too obvious to require much notice.

“ 6th Principle.—*There ought to be no advantage in receiving a reward from any particular individual.*

“ A school is a machine, and there must be a proportion of parts, and a consistency of action throughout the whole. Every act, both of teachers and pupils, has a proper or improper tendency ; that is, it interferes with the machine, either for good or for evil. It is evident, that every boy should wish to rise ; but that wish may be injured, and perhaps destroyed, if the teacher of a lower class is more liberal than one of a higher. As this principle was acknowledged at the last meeting of the conference, and is the foundation of my present undertaking, I only mention it now, that we may have all the principles under consideration, at one and the same time.

“ It now only remains for me to call the attention of the conference to the value of exact registers. From the accounts in their present state I have been able to draw much information ; but there is room for improvement ; and at a future day, it may be well for the conference to make such arrangements, as may secure us the greatest quantity of matter, consistent with a due regard to the convenience of the recording teacher.”

“ September 14th, 1821.”

## RULES FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF THE DEFAULTERS.

1. "The superintending teacher should never leave the defaulters except in cases of great necessity; and he should never fail upon any account whatever, to be present at each muster of the defaulters, and to continue there until his overseer has arrived, and until each individual has commenced his labour, and is supplied with every thing necessary for the continuance of it.

2. "The defaulters should muster at the appointed time, and immediately commence their labour.

3. "Silence should be constantly kept by all present, both teachers and pupils.—If it be necessary to speak, it should be done in a low whisper. Pupils accidentally present, who disturb the peace, should be fined.\* No defaulter should, without express permission, address any person except the teacher or the overseer; and even this should be done as briefly as possible.

4. "Strangers, both teachers and pupils, should, as far as possible, be excluded from the defaulters' room.

5. "As it is highly important for the defaulters to continue their labour without a moment's intermission, they should not be allowed to mend their own pens, cut their own pencils, or do any thing else of the kind.

6. "For the same reason, it is necessary that the defaulters should be carefully supplied with every thing that they may want.

7. "No defaulter should ever be allowed to leave the room upon pretence of fetching any thing that he may want; and in case he is not so provided as to proceed in any other employment, he should immediately be set to work upon one of the public slates.

8. "A lead pencil, a slate pencil, and a good pen, should be kept in constant readiness for the use of such defaulters as may want their own pencils cut, or their own pens mended.

9. "The defaulters should be frequently questioned as to the causes of their default; and great efforts should be made to

\* Defaulters are punished by the imposition of time: that is to say, by prolonging the period of their labour for the day.



remove such causes. As for instance, to effect the recovery of books or other articles, for the loss of which the defaulters may be subject to fines; and to prevent the defaulters from falling into arrears with their tasks.

10. "The defaulters should be frequently questioned, as to the amount of their default, in order that they may be fully aware of the rate of their progress, or retrogression.

11. "In order to qualify himself and those under his care for these examinations, the superintending teacher should, after every meal, question the *custos depositorum*, before the defaulters, respecting the balance of each individual's account, the fines he has incurred, and the causes of these fines.

12. "It should be always recollected that it is a very serious evil for any pupil to remain long upon the defaulters' list; since, thereby, his spirit becomes broken, and he is gradually reconciled to the condition of a defaulter; at least so far as to make no strenuous efforts for release.

13. "The superintending teacher should, if possible, avoid making use of any imposition of time, which cannot be cleared off in the course of the day, on which it is merited; since it is rarely the case that a defaulter has sufficient forethought to be afraid of distant punishment.

14. "It is the business of the superintending teacher to see that the overseer performs all his duties.

15. "The overseer should mend the pens, and cut the pencils of the defaulters; lending in the mean time to each applicant, a pen, or pencil, as may be required. In order that the overseer may be always provided with these instruments, he must be careful to make timely application to the superintending teacher.

16. "The overseer should likewise give notice at a quarter to six every evening, to the different teachers who have the care of the several tasks, which will be expected from the defaulters on the following day; in order that such teachers may see to the accomplishment of these tasks before the defaulters retire to bed.

17. "He should also see that the work of the defaulters, as well as a pen and pencil, are in readiness for the teacher who examines the work.

18. "He should, moreover, wash the public slates, and keep them constantly ready for use."

## PROCEEDINGS OF THE COMMITTEE.

" Report on the character of ——. Entered the school in October, 1816. Left in June, 1819. Re-entered in July, 1821. Left finally in March, 1824, aged fifteen years. Resides at ———.

" Were we called upon to point out an individual on whom the government and customs of our school had produced great and beneficial effects, there is no one who would present himself more forcibly to our minds than ——— : so great was the contrast between his early conduct and his behaviour for a considerable time previous to his departure; for although symptoms of his early bad propensities and selfishness did for a long time occasionally show themselves : yet before he left us they had become very rare ; and the school was indemnified for the trouble and pain which his conduct once gave, by the benefit arising from the zealous discharge of his duties as an officer, and by his example in observing the laws to which he was subjected. When he first entered our school, both his temper and principles were in a very bad state ; he was extremely cunning, very selfish, and almost devoid of generous feeling ; he was obstinate to a degree ; and in his fits of passion, which were frequent and violent, disregarding all distinctions of teacher and schoolfellow, he would " run a muck, and tilt at all he met," and nothing but the exertion of superior strength was able to subdue him.

" Had he joined stupidity to these bad habits, it is to be feared that he would scarcely have been cured, as there would then have been the additional difficulty of convincing him, that he was subtracting from his own happiness by his misconduct ; and without his co-operation, his reform would have been almost hopeless. ——— however, was endowed with excellent natural talents, which have doubtless facilitated his moral as well as his intellectual improvement. The change, nevertheless, was very gradual ; and although after some years he ceased to commit offences of magnitude, yet it was a very long time before he displayed much active virtue.

“ The time is not far distant when he steadily declined taking any part in the public business of the school, and when any sacrifice on his own part to the convenience or happiness of another, if asked for, was regularly refused. But even his selfishness vanished at last; and by force of good example, he imbibed a more generous spirit, and showed practically that he was aware that the general good is sometimes to be preferred to our own private convenience and inclination.

“ The early progress of — in his studies, was not only retarded by the moroseness of his temper, but by very bad health, which probably in a great measure caused that moroseness; and this ill-health was accompanied by weakness in his eyes. Notwithstanding these impediments, however, he was eminently successful in his advancement in some branches of learning. When only ten years of age, there were but few in the school who could cope with him as a mental arithmetician, and he could read his native language, in a manner which showed that he generally felt the full force of the passage.

“ But his ill-health increasing at this period, it was thought advisable for him to reside for a time near the sea-side, that he might have the benefit of sea-bathing: with this view he was placed at a school at —, and remained at it for two years; during which time, his health was much improved, and his education continued.

“ At the end of that time, he returned amongst us, and soon began to engage in some of the upper branches of study. He applied with success to the classics. He acquired the power of translating from the Latin poets with correctness, and occasionally with elegance; and the pleasure of enjoyment had so far succeeded to the toil of labour, that he evidently felt and admired the beauties of his author. There can be no doubt, that if he should pursue his study of the classics, he may become a good scholar. In mental arithmetic, which had formerly been so much his fort, he had retrograded very much during his absence; but after a time he regained and surpassed his former rank: in commercial arithmetic he became very expert and correct, and in process of time, he advanced into the highest branches of the mathematics which are taught in the school, viz. trigonometry, al-

gebra, and speculative geometry. In these departments of study he surpassed most of his companions; and he was one of the three boys who sent in an original solution of the problem which was solved publicly at the last annual exhibition. He excelled also in composition; a report which he made of a lecture on electricity, which was delivered to the boys, is preserved in the Hazelwood Magazine.

"It has been mentioned, that before leaving the school, — had conquered his aversion to joining in the public business of the school. To show how far he did so, it will be sufficient to mention, that he repeatedly filled the office of magistrate; which is certainly the most arduous one in the school; and the one which demands the greatest sacrifice of the private feelings, to the conscientious discharge of its duties: because, as the magistrate is expected to take cognizance of comparatively petty offences, he must necessarily be sometimes obliged to fine his equals and companions: as, with but few exceptions, all boys occasionally commit such offences. The exertions of — on the committee also must not be forgotten; he was very frequently chosen chairman, and certainly filled that office better than it had ever been filled before his time. His conduct immediately before leaving the school, was highly creditable to him; as it showed that he was actuated by a motive far superior to the love of prizes—we mean the love of knowledge: for although he was aware that he should not remain till the end of the half-year, and that consequently he was debarred from all possibility of obtaining a prize, yet he performed the voluntary exercises, and laboured as hard in the weekly arrangements, as he had done in the preceding half-year, when his exertions were rewarded by a prize; and he continued to work so closely up to his departure, that he sent in one exercise which could not even be entered in his account. Since his departure, his teachers and schoolfellows have shown their esteem and respect for him, by presenting him with a copy of *Telema- chus*, and by placing his name on the tablet of honour."

## DEBATES.

March 11th, 1825. The following report of the proceedings of the Committee for this evening, is extracted from the school Magazine. We have inserted it to give the reader a conception of the manner in which the business is carried on.

## " \* ERECTION OF STUDIES.

" E. H— reported that he had finished the plan for the studies, and he now laid it before the committee for inspection.

" After the plan had been examined, W. W— rose to move that it should be adopted.

" Mr. R. H— objected that the plan now presented was only an outline; and that before it could be adopted, it must be accompanied by an elevation and a section of the intended building.

" It was therefore resolved that the outline now presented be adopted, and that the minute respecting the plan for the studies be continued.

## " TRESPASS UPON THE PALÆSTRA.

" W. W—, in pursuance of a notice which he had given at the previous meeting, moved that the fine for a ward going into the Palæstra, should be 100 marks instead of 40 as heretofore. He was of opinion, that a ward by going into the Palæstra, was guilty, not only of a breach of bounds, but also of a kind of cheating; as he took from the Franks a privilege to which they only had a right.

" J. G— could not agree that this act ought to be considered as cheating. He thought, that if a boy chose to go out of bounds and incur the penalty, he was at liberty to do so.

" J. H— contended that Messrs. Hill gave the field in question

\* " It should be mentioned, in order to explain this, that the committee have resolved to build a set of small rooms, to be used as studies. It is intended to borrow a sum of money at four per cent. to pay for their erection, the interest of which sum will be repaid by the rents of the studies.—Applications have already been made for more studies than are to be erected."

to the Franks, and that it was an infringement upon their rights for the wards to go into it.

“ Mr. R. H— observed that a better way of keeping the wards out of the Palæstra, would be for Franks to exert a little more vigilance in reporting transgressors to the magistrate. That he himself had often seen several wards in the Palæstra, when many Franks were present, and upon inquiring of the magistrate, had found that none of the offenders had been reported.

“ W. W— replied, that one day when he was in the Palæstra, he had seen the constable set a boy down five or six times, and that still the individual would not go out ; and that he thought this a very good argument in support of the increase of the fine.

“ J. G— contended that a small fine vigorously enforced, would be more effective than a large one which was not so enforced.

“ Mr. R. H— fully agreed in opinion with the last speaker : he observed that it was often the case in the great world, that where the legal penalty for a crime was very great, the offence went unpunished, through a general unwillingness to prosecute. In case of forgery, for instance, the punishment for which is death, delinquents were often suffered to escape with impunity. He was of opinion that in this instance, although the fine ought to be raised, it was not desirable that it should be raised so much. The motion was negatived without a division.

“ J. H— moved that the fine for a ward going into the Palæstra should be 70 marks instead of 40 as heretofore ; but he was reminded that he could not make this motion, as he had not given notice of it at a previous meeting ; and, that now no person was empowered to do so, except W. W—, who had already given notice to that effect. Accordingly W. W— moved that the fine should be raised to 60 marks. This motion was carried.

#### “ AGGREGATE RANK.

“ W. W— produced a poetic translation from the *Æneid*, for which he petitioned the committee to allow him some points, towards raising his aggregate rank. He laid his exercise upon

the table, and withdrew into another room, whilst it was examined.

" A member moved that 30 points should be given to W. W— for his verses.

" A. F— moved as an amendment, that the number 25 should be inserted instead of the number 30.

" Mr. A. H— was called to give his opinion of the translation. He stated that he had examined the exercise in question, and had found the passage to be correctly translated.

" The amended motion was passed.

#### " JUDGE'S POWER OF MITIGATION.

" The Defender General rose to move that the power invested in the judge, of diminishing the penalty in cases where the prisoner pleads guilty, should be abolished. He contended, that many boys were induced to plead guilty in order to avoid part of the penalty, when there was a possibility of their escaping the whole.

" The Prosecutor General was of opinion, that no one would be so foolish as to plead guilty, when he knew that he was innocent.

" The Defender General argued, that sometimes a weight of evidence induced a boy to plead guilty, when, if he had not done so, he might have escaped the whole fine and also the disgrace.

" Mr. R. H— contended, that if such cases ever occurred, the only possibility of escape, was by some mistake on the part of the Prosecutor General; and that then the prosecution could be revived by an appeal to the committee.

" The motion was negatived.

#### " \* BENEVOLENT SOCIETY.

" Mr. R. H— reminded the committee that the Benevolent Society had subscribed to the Birmingham hospital and dispensary; and he wished to know whether the tickets for admission of patients to those institutions, had been received. Upon being told that they had, he observed that if the members of the committee

" \* With certain limitations, the power of disposing of the Benevolent Fund, is invested in the general committee."

knew of any poor persons whom they thought proper objects for charity, it would be well to bring their cases before the committee; as the tickets, if not used before Michaelmas next, would lose their power.

"A member proposed W——, one of the committee, who was absent on account of a slight lameness, as a proper object for the hospital ticket. Another observed that one of the school bells had been long indisposed. A third member would have recommended the drum-heads, but was afraid that they would be discharged as incurable.\*

#### " SCHOOL BATH.

"Mr. R. H—— stated that the water of the bath was now very clear, and that he thought measures might be taken to keep it always so.

"Resolved.—That W. W—— and T. J—— be requested to take measures for keeping the bath in its present clear state.

#### " PUBLIC DISGRACE.

"Mr. R. H—— stated, that about a year previously to his time, a law had been made, requiring that every indictment should be read at the forenoon general muster, on the day of the assize. He thought it advisable that a boy should not suffer the disgrace of being twice publicly arraigned. The object in reading the indictment so long before the trial, was, that the prosecutor-general might have early information of the defendant's intentions respecting his plea; but this might be done in private, as the only persons whose presence was necessary, were the defendant himself, his counsel, if he intended to employ any, the prosecutor-general, the magistrate, and the clerk of the court. He therefore hoped that some member would introduce a law for the discontinuance of the practice to which he objected. E. L— offered to do this, and gave notice accordingly.

*Hazelwood Magazine, Vol. 3.*

\* "A motion for the mending of these drum-heads had been brought before the committee, and owing to the slowness of the workmen, had been continued for nearly a month." *Editor.* [An older editor might, perhaps, have been aware that jokes which require notes to make them intelligible, seldom repay the trouble of investigation.]



## INSTITUTION OF GUARDIANS.

Since we wrote the detailed account of our plans for the present edition, a system of mutual responsibility has been superadded, somewhat similar to that introduced among our Saxon ancestors, by Alfred the Great.

A plan of this description has been practised for some years by M. Fellenberg, and was adopted by our committee at the recommendation of Mr. Robert Dale Owen ; who, having been educated at Hofwyl, had had ample opportunities for observing its effects.

As the adoption of this arrangement among ourselves is very recent, we cannot speak with confidence of its value ; but judging from the great interest it has excited among our pupils, and the good effects it has already produced, we are led to form very favourable anticipations. The following is a copy of the regulations, as given in the minutes of the school committee.

*“ April 29th, 1825. — Resolved, That the following plans be adopted. The school shall be divided into decads, to be called circles ; and over each of these circles shall be appointed a boy to be called a guardian. These guardians shall be elected in the following manner : the last arrangement, by conduct, having been laid before the committee, it shall vote, seriatim, upon the name of each individual, until a sufficient number of guardians shall be chosen. The committee shall at all times have the power of altering its appointment. The guardians shall be elected twice in each half year, viz. on the first day of the half year, and immediately after the first arrangement by conduct. At the same time the circles shall be chosen privately, by the guardians, who shall decide the order of choice by lot, and choose each one a boy in succession, until the decads shall be complete. If any boys shall remain unchosen they shall be*

divided amongst the circles, whose guardians shall have had the first choice, in order to balance, in some measure, the advantage which the first choice gives : and to promote a further approximation to equality, the guardians shall now choose exactly in the reverse order to that in which they chose at the commencement. All boys who shall not be present at the formation of the decads, shall be added to the circles in the inverse order to that in which the guardians first chose. Any circle shall be allowed to depose its guardian, and to elect another out of its own body. In such case the deposed guardian shall be a member of the circle over which he was chosen to preside.

“ The duties of the guardians shall be these : when any individual is observed to behave improperly, his guardian shall remonstrate with him on the impropriety of his conduct, in private ; if that is found to be ineffectual, he shall speak to him before the circle, and if this also should not produce the desired effect, he shall lay his case before the committee. Each guardian shall be expected to enforce the execution of the school laws, within his own circle, to the utmost of his power. The duties of each member of the circle shall be, to assist his guardian, by carefully observing the conduct of his brother members, checking every thing which may appear improper, and making all necessary reports to the guardian. After each arrangement by conduct, a table shall be made, showing the united rank of each circle.”

The great interest excited by this measure, induced the teacher who attended the committee during the discussions, to draw up the following statement of the proceedings connected with its adoption.

“ The law respecting the circles is principally my own, though some important modifications were made by the other members of the committee. I took but little part in the discussion which lasted more than an hour. At half past ten at night the law was passed, when some members were for deferring the measures necessary for carrying it into effect, to the next regular meeting of the committee ; a large majority, however, decided upon an adjournment to the next morning, and the secretary

was directed to obtain the principal's assent to the bill, in the mean time.

" When we met the next morning, it appeared, that owing to indisposition on the part of the principal, the secretary had not till that moment, been able to lay the bill before him, and that his sanction had not yet been obtained. Several motions of adjournment were consequently made, and amongst others, one by myself; but all were negatived, and the debate was protracted until the bill had received the assent of the principal, at which time, a few minutes only remained before the breakfast-hour. A member now moved, that the committee should proceed with the business without regard to hours or to meals, and his motion was carried almost unanimously.

" We now set to work to choose the guardians. One or two names at the head of the list excited no discussion; the appointment being made *nem. con.*, but the patient deliberation, keen insight into character, power of weighing evidence, and the anxiety to make the best appointments, without regard to favour or partiality, that were manifested during the election, called forth my high admiration. Some junior members declined having their names voted upon—and there were but few instances in which the appointment was unanimous. No boy was present while his name was under consideration.

" When the list of guardians was completed I supposed the business to be at an end; but a member of the committee proposed that the election should be re-examined, and the mode adopted was this; the list just formed was read over, when any member of the committee fixed upon an individual who had not been elected, and compared him with some one who had. Many comparisons were made, and the committee came several times to a division; but no alteration took place.

" The election of the guardians was not concluded till eleven o'clock, when the committee adjourned for breakfast; after which the guardians chose the members of their circles. No teacher was present at this time; but the choice displays evident marks of the greatest care."

## PRESENT OF A SMALL STEAM ENGINE.

May 6th. 1825. The chairman of the committee laid before that body, a working model of a steam engine, which had been received from Mr. F. O., who constructed it in his leisure hours. Mr. F. O. left the school at the end of 1823, and his age is now seventeen. The present was accompanied by the following letter.

“ May 4th, 1825.

“ DEAR SIR,

“ In order to show that the present,\* which the committee were so kind as to make me, has not been totally unproductive of endeavours at least, I beg that you will be so good as to request my old school-fellows to accept a model of a steam engine that I have just completed. I am fully aware that there is great room for improvement in many particulars; nevertheless, it will, I trust, be found sufficiently effective to show the principle of steam power. But, Sir, in the little experience that I have gained in constructing this model, I feel myself able to make a larger and more complete one; and should the committee think proper to defray the expense of materials for making another, I will do my utmost, as far as time, trouble, and workmanship are concerned, to fulfil their wishes. Should the above offer meet their approbation, I shall of course be favoured with more particular instructions. Meantime,

“ I remain,

“ My dear Sir,

“ Yours very truly,

“ F. O.

“ To the Chairman of the Committee—Hazelwood.”

\* A copy of “Stuart’s Descriptive History of the Steam Engine,” presented to Mr. F. O. when he left the school.

The model, which is upon Trevethick's principle, is very neatly executed. The cylinder, is of brass, six inches long, and an inch and three quarters in diameter; the steam is admitted alternately to each side of the piston and is then set at liberty, by means of the *four-way* cock; and the piston-rod is connected with the engine-beam and is maintained in its perpendicular position, by the *parallel-motion*. The workmanship, with the exception of little more than the casting, is that of the donor's own hands. The different parts were turned, and the screws were cut by himself, and he made the models for the casting. This is the individual, who is stated, in the ninth chapter, to have constructed, while a pupil, a model of our warm-air apparatus. We do not doubt that the experience he then obtained materially assisted him in his late undertaking.

The whole engine is so arranged as to expose each different part to minute inspection; it is therefore admirably calculated to effect the purpose for which it was intended by its kind constructor; viz. that of facilitating the acquirement of exact information respecting the construction of the steam engine. Its arrangement will likewise render the task of copying it comparatively easy, should the sight of the model and the knowledge that it is the production of an old school-fellow, excite sufficient emulation in any of our pupils to induce them to make such an attempt.

It is hardly necessary to say that the committee thankfully accepted the present; it also embraced the kind offer conveyed in the letter. The following is a copy of the answer which was returned to Mr. F. O.

“ Hazelwood,

“ May\* 13th, 1825.

“ DEAR SIR,

“ It is with pleasure that we find ourselves appointed by the committee, (however incompetent to the task), to write a

\* To account for the delay of a week, it is necessary to state that two members were appointed to write this letter, and to lay it before the committee at its next meeting.

letter, expressive of its most grateful sentiments towards you, for your late noble and to us invaluable present. With respect to your kind proposal, we are requested to state that the committee thankfully embraces it; and that that body has given an order to the treasurer of the school fund, to place ten guineas at your disposal, to defray the expenses attendant upon so great an undertaking. From an idea that it was your particular desire that the principle on which the engine was to be constructed should be specified, it was resolved, that if it be consistent with your views you be requested to construct an engine on Boulton and Watt's principle, but that you be left at perfect liberty to make any alterations you shall think proper.

“ We are, Dear Sir,

“ With mingled feelings of gratitude and esteem,

“ Yours very sincerely,

“ E. L. and C. P.

“ To Mr. F. O.”

On the day after the receipt of the present had been declared to the committee, the chairman, preparatory to announcing the circumstance to the school, ordered the little boiler of the model to be heated, and thus presented the machine in full work. The interest which was raised on this occasion was of course very great, and we believe that the feeling of gratitude to the donor was at once warm and general.

Soon afterwards a request was made to one of the teachers, by some of the youngest boys, for a course of instruction on the Steam Engine.

## ANNUAL EXHIBITION.

The following lively sally appeared a few days after the scenes described in it, and as we afterwards discovered, was the production of a gentleman, who might be suspected of some partiality for the school, from the circumstance of his having a son therein as a pupil. We are aware that the paper is far too laudatory, yet we do not conceal that we think it as fair a portrait as is generally meant by a handsome likeness, and as such we give it, without abridgement, and without further note or comment; hoping that as it much amused ourselves, it will not be unentertaining to our readers.

“ We were present on Wednesday Evening\* at the public exercises of *Hazelwood School*. There is no pleasanter way of spending a few hours—a play is mummery and nonsense, in comparison with such an exhibition, so abounding in the overflow of joyous feeling and exuberant hilarity. The happy performers are perfectly *agog* with the gaiety and excitement of the thing itself, and they have, in addition, the feeling that this intoxicating draught is only the *beginning* of pleasures,—that all the regal and imperial grandeur of the Midsummer holidays is still before them, and on the eve of commencing. But to the exhibition itself:—The walls of the spacious school-room, all that were visible, were adorned with the handy works of the boys; maps, plans, elevations, landscapes, mathematical diagrams, flowers, men’s heads, and women’s heads; many of them extremely well executed, and nearly all, as we understood, the production of voluntary labour,—of well-employed over-hours.

“ A large table also was covered with the more solid works of the same artists. Articles of turnery, ornamental fabrics, Lilliputian machinery, and models of all sorts of visible things. Before the audience, at a competent distance, the floor takes a sudden elevation of nearly two feet, which forms the proscenium where the classes were assembled for examination; in the

\* June 16, 1824.

wall of this is an opening of perhaps 12 feet by 8, into another division of the room. This opening was, at our entrance, covered by a green curtain, which concealed the stage, with all its cleverly-painted and well-varied scenery.

"The music at length struck up, and files of smart lads marched gaily in, wheeling and *evolving* with great precision, till the seats left for them at the sides were filled. A class were then called forth to be exercised in *mental arithmetic*. How they executed some of the questions proposed, we do not quite understand,—let *Zerah Colburn*, *George Bidder*, and other *figurants*, look to their laurels;—the Hazelwood multiplication table appeared to us to extend up to 49 times 49.\*

"Let these things, however, pass. They are very fine in their way, but the *business* of the evening was its dramatic shows. Of these, the first was a considerable portion of the *Aulularia* of Plautus; this was succeeded by a French Dramatic, founded on a story from *Gil Blas*. Afterwards were presented scenes from Shakspeare's *Coriolanus*, Foote's Imitation of *Le Medecin Malgre lui*, the *Rivals*, a Drama of *School Adventures* (original) in Latin, and the performance of the Tragedy of *Pyramus and Thisbe*, from the *Midsummer Night's Dream*.

"We begin to think the profession of an actor is one of no great difficulty, to *boys* at least,—*men* find it otherwise;—it was truly amusing and delightful to see how the juveniles entered into the spirit of the shows. In the first piece, *Strophilus*, the slave (O——), gave the truest picture of the *sneakiness* of the character, and of the narrowness of his ideas of morality; his manner, humble and subdued, though occasionally elevated into pertness by his good fortune. His master *Lyconides* (P——), on the contrary, advanced in patrician state; he managed his flowing robes, (the characters in this piece were *in costume*) with the ease and grace of Macready, and paced the stage, giving out his moralities, with the gravity and energy of Young. The Miser *Euclio* (C——), "old Euclio," as Pope says, entered, arrayed in his shabby and patched cloak, and

"\* It was stated by Mr. R. H——, that the questions asked were then for the first time heard by the pupils, who had no preparation, beyond their *thorough knowledge* of the subject."



his joy on the recovery of his treasure was almost that of Emery, in *Lovegold*.

"Similar was the spirit of the French drama. The beginning was omitted, for brevity's sake,—but the Impostor, *Dois Raphael* (P—— but the names of the performers are of little consequence), sipped his wine, chuckled in triumph, ogled his rival, the real *Membrilla*, through his pendant eye-glass, in a style which the next performer of his *double*, *Jeremy Diddler*, on the stage, might profitably witness. In Foote's farce, *Gregory*, gave out his mystifications in the true, rapid, overbearing tone of the empiric. His head was graced by a large and spreading cocked hat, and he evidently enjoyed his part in a degree which Liston, Munden, or Matthews, might envy, but which they will never more feel. So in the scene from the *Rivals*, the dignified and elderly *Sir Anthony Absolute*, in his docked blue jacket and nankeen trowsers, wielded his cane and threatened his refractory son, with the most perfectly expressed wrath, while every muscle of his beatified countenance exhibited the intense pleasure he received from the jokes he had to utter. And then, the smiling ranks which filled the side benches, had full participation in the glories of their comrades, and liberally showered down upon them the peals of manual applause, from which your actor draws his breath and being. Turning about on our seats, our eyes were met by a spectacle almost equally pleasant,—the pleased countenances of the parents and friends of the performers, who received full reflected gratification from the exertions of their sons and nephews. We sighed with regret at the thought that we could never more be a school-boy, in this world; and it seemed to us, that the most dignified feelings of manhood would be wisely resigned to obtain a resumption of the light-hearted carelessness of budding youth, so amply displayed by these "young Hazelwoods, of Hazelwood." We ought not, in the enjoyment of the dramatic parts of this exhibition, to omit the precision with which a mathematical problem was solved, requiring elaborate and constant reference to the Euclidian Canons,—nor should we forget to say that in our apprehension, the pronunciation of the *foreign languages* was elegant and correct, and that in these, and in the English readings from

Byron, Pope, &c., the force and meaning of the author seemed to be fully comprehended.

"The pauses between the different pieces were well filled by select airs, respectably played by the school band of wind instruments. One of the number, "out-swelling the colic of puffed Aquilon," gave a solo on the keyed Bugle, with considerable skill.

"The prime joy and glory of the evening was the last dramatic extract,—from the *Midsummer Night's Dream*. The fancies of the boys here ran riot, and all was fun, downright roaring fun. Lion, Wall, and Moonshine, were introduced with appropriate fur, plaster, and candle-light; *Pyramus* spouted his part with admirably efficient *cross-emphasis*, and *Thisbe* was sad as heart could wish. Then there was the killing scene, in which *Pyramus* took out his pocket handkerchief to *dust the floor*, in the true *Lord Grizzle* style, before he lay down,—and *Thisbe*, after the exhibition of a very ragged handkerchief to weep in, affected to have pricked his side with his dagger's point, while he intended to have introduced it technically under his arm. These things are all excellent; and are still the better when they are so heartily enjoyed.

"After this piece, came a concluding address, delivered in a style equal to the run of read or learnt-off speeches at public meetings; setting forth the merits of the Greek cause.—After that, a few words were added by the worthy principal of this Seminary, and after that came "God save the King," by the juvenile band,—and after that was a collection for the Greeks aforesaid, which, with the collection on the preceding evening, netted, we are informed, nearly 60*l*. The plates were obligingly held by J. Scholefield and W. Blakeway, Esqrs."

*Birmingham Spectator, No. IV.*

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